

GENDER-BASED PUBLIC HARASSMENT:
AN INTERSECTIONAL APPROACH TO EXPLORING FREQUENCY AND EFFECTS OF
HARASSMENT EXPERIENCES

BY

HOPE D. HOLLAND

THESIS

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Science in Psychology
in the Graduate College of the
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 2019

Urbana, Illinois

Advisers:

Professor Nicole E. Allen
Associate Professor Nathan R. Todd

ABSTRACT

The current study examined the self-reported frequency of 369 undergraduate women's past year public harassment experiences with attention to an intersectional feminist framework. Employing an exploratory measure created specifically for the study, two dimensions of public harassment were examined: uninvited attention/appraisal and reactive intrusions. Women reported a wide variety of experiences across both dimensions of public gendered harassment. Black, Hispanic, and non-Hispanic White women reported experiencing harassment at similar rates. Asian-American women endorsed significantly lower rates of uninvited attention/appraisal and comparable rates of reactive intrusions. On average, queer women endorsed experiencing more incidents of reactive intrusions, a finding which trended towards statistical significance; this endorsement pattern was particularly evident in non-Hispanic White respondents. Statistically-significant variance was identified between ethnoracial groups on both subscales, and between sexual orientation groups on the reactive intrusions subscale. Low statistical power was observed for sexual orientation, which potentially impacted the ability to identify significant statistical differences between mean endorsement rates of heterosexual and queer respondents. Finally, this study also examined the impact of the uninvited attention/appraisal and reactive intrusions dimensions of gender-based public harassment on self-reported general psychological distress. Results from a regression analysis indicate that the reactive intrusions dimension contributes statistically significant predictive power for psychological distress, even when accounting for other potentially traumatic experiences.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER 2: METHODS	12
CHAPTER 3: RESULTS	22
CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION.....	35
REFERENCES	44
APPENDIX A: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL LETTER.....	55
APPENDIX B: PARTICIPANT CONSENT DOCUMENT	58
APPENDIX C: GENDER-BASED PUBLIC HARASSMENT SURVEY	61
APPENDIX D: SEXUAL EXPERIENCES QUESTIONNAIRE-DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE- SHORT EDITION (SEQ-DoD-s)	65
APPENDIX E: LIFE EVENTS CHECKLIST (LEC)	66
APPENDIX F: KESSLER PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTRESS SCALE (K10)	67

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Violence against women (VAW) is an enduring public health issue in the United States. Research data from multiple large scale studies suggests that within their lifetimes, approximately half of all women will be victims of gender-based violence including sexual abuse or assault, intimate partner violence, or workplace or academic sexual harassment (Campbell, Greeson, Bybee & Raja, 2008; Erdreich, Slavet, & Amador, 1995; Kilpatrick, Saunders, & Smith, 2003; Lipari & Lancaster, 2002; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998, 2006; Woods, Buchanan, & Settles, 2009). Decades of activist and scholarly attention to women's experiences have contributed to an expansive literature base and significant cultural and political change regarding these issues. However, we know much less about women's experiences of "everyday" gender-based violence such as public harassment. Some scholars argue that better understanding the so-called mundane expressions of VAW is important because these types of everyday experiences lie at "... the heart of the continuum of sexual violence," contributing to the maintenance of other, more extreme expressions of violence (Vera-Gray, 2015 p. 21; Kelly, 1988). Our aim in this study is to begin to clarify the conceptualization and measurement of public harassment, examine what women report regarding day to day experiences of gender-based harassment from strangers in public and semi-public spaces, and explore potential differences in experiences of gender-based public harassment by women depending on their unique social locations (with regard to ethnoracial identity group and sexual orientation). Finally, this study examines the relationship between endorsement of harassment and reported psychological distress.

Conceptualizing Public Harassment as Gender-Based Violence

Continuum of Violence Against Women. Contemporary feminist scholarship generally supports a conceptualization of VAW as a multifaceted continuum, rather than as a series of

discrete, episodic events (see, e.g., Kelly, 1988). The continuum situates the myriad of abuses enacted towards and experienced by women, including rape, sexual harassment, groping, sexist comments, domestic violence, child sexual abuse, etcetera, not as discrete categories but as individual expressions of a larger, oppressive structure (Kelly, 1988; Leidig, 1992; Vera-Gray, 2015). This conceptualization posits that ultimately each form of VAW is a different symptom of the same disease, which together “function as a form of social control by denying women freedom and autonomy” (Kelly, 1988).

To date, our examination of this continuum of violence against women has focused on its more extreme forms including sexual hostility, coercion, violence and threats of violence. Though undoubtedly deserving of attention, focusing only on the most extreme manifestations “obscure[s] the subtler and more pervasive forms of abuse of women which are woven into the fabric of our society” (Klein, p.64-65). Advancing knowledge on modern experiences of gender-based violence (GBV) requires directing increased attention to what Kelly (1988, 2012) posits as “key to the continuum”: those “everyday, routine” expressions of GBV such as public harassment (2012, p. xviii). The current study aims to contribute to knowledge of everyday expressions of VAW by examining women’s experiences of public harassment in public spaces perpetrated by people unknown (or not well known) to them.

Definitional Tensions. Although not as well-studied as some other forms of gender-based violence, scholars have been interested in women’s day to day experiences with male strangers in public spaces for decades (e.g., see Davis 1993; Gardner 1995; di Leonardo 1981). One issue is that a lack of common terminology has engendered siloed work, obscuring links between potentially complementary examinations of this experience (Logan, 2015; Vera-Gray, 2015). Research on related, often overlapping topics such as street harassment (e.g., di Leonardo

1981; Kissling, 1991), commonplace intrusions (e.g., Stanko, 1985, 1990; Kelly, 1988), public harassment, (Gardner, 1995), stranger harassment (Fairchild & Rudman, 2008; Fairchild, 2010), offensive public speech (Nielsen, 2004), everyday sexism (Bates, 2014), public incivility (Valentine, 1990), sexual terrorism (Fogg-Davis, 2005), and others have been taken up by a variety of disciplines including sociology, philosophy, psychology, and law. Logan (2015) argues that these “[m]ultiple ways of naming street harassment have hampered awareness of a cohesive body of literature about the subject” (p.198). Similarly, the lack of a consistent operationalization of the issue has contributed to “[s]cholars, activists, and lawmakers use of multiple definitions ... that vary along dimensions of behavior, victims, and offenders,” resulting in a dispersion of knowledge (Logan, 2015 p.198).

In one of the earliest works on the subject Gardner (1995, p.4) distinctly relates what she names public harassment to the continuum of VAW, explaining:

“I call these actions public harassment, that is, that group of abuses, harryings, and annoyances characteristic of public places and uniquely facilitated by communication in public. Public harassment includes pinching, slapping, hitting, shouted remarks, vulgarity, insults, sly innuendo, ogling, and stalking. *Public harassment is on a continuum of possible events, beginning when customary civility among strangers is abrogated and ending with the transition to violent crime: assault, rape, or murder* [emphasis added].”

Throughout this paper, we will refer to experiences of “abrogated customary civility” but below the threshold of assault as ‘gender-based public harassment’, which we sometimes abbreviate to ‘public harassment’. We posit that public harassment is a multifaceted phenomenon that consists of multiple related but distinct dimensions. It is possible that women may only

encounter one dimension of public harassment, or they may encounter multiple, overlapping dimensions. This conceptualization is comparable to sexual harassment's distinct gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention, and sexual coercion components (Fitzgerald, Gelfand & Drasgow, 1995).

Conceptualizing Gender-Based Public Harassment. This paper specifically focuses on expressions of gender-based violence as enacted by unknown men on women in physical public or communal spaces. Adopting an intersectional feminist approach, we assert that power and oppression are enacted on and through social identities, and that an individual's experience is simultaneously and differentially impacted by their gender, as well as their race and ethnicity, age, social economic status (SES), disability status, immigration status and citizenship, etc. Thus, we assert that (in the Western context) any interaction of public harassment from a stranger, particularly when the harasser is male and the harasee is not male, innately implicates gender, and thus gender-based violence. In the current study, we limit the use of 'public or communal spaces' to mean physical, as opposed to online, spaces. Additionally, the current study adopts a behavioral approach to identifying harassment, relying on participant endorsement of a specific situation to capture the experience of public harassment (e.g., "I have experienced an unknown person yelling sexually explicit comments to me"), as opposed to relying on an individual's reported cognitive or emotional response to a situation (e.g., "I have experienced someone harassing me on the street", or "I felt scared when someone yelled sexually explicit things at me on the street").

The current study focuses on exploring two dimensions of public harassment, which we refer to as a) uninvited attention/appraisal and b) reactive intrusions. We conceptualize uninvited attention/appraisal as the range of sexualized and/or gendered verbal and nonverbal behaviors a

harasser may enact. This form of public harassment is harassment done ‘at’ the victim: the leering from across a cafe, the sexual comments hurled from a passing car, the trivialized but intrusive encounters with a stranger in public. In contrast, we conceptualize reactive intrusions as a harasser’s response to perceived rejection or dismissal by the target of harassment. Importantly, in this conceptualization it does not matter whether the target ignores the harasser, actively rejects the harasser, or some other response. This scale captures experiences of public harassment in which the harasser appears to be attempting to chide or shame the target into modifying her behavior (i.e., to favorably interact with the harasser).

Distinctions from Sexual Harassment. It is worth noting how public harassment is informed by, but distinct from the widely studied phenomenon of sexual harassment. While certainly conceptually related, we hypothesize that the phenomenon of public harassment diverges from that of sexual harassment in a few key ways. First, while not all scholars describe sexual harassment as necessarily occurring in an employment or academic setting (e.g., Thompson, 1994; Crouch, 2009) this is overwhelmingly the most common context in which it is studied (e.g., Fitzgerald, Gelfand, & Drasgow, 1995; Fitzgerald, 1993; Stein, 1995; Gruber, 1992). While sexual harassment may occur between an individual (e.g., an employee; a student) and someone with power over them in that setting (e.g., a boss; a teaching assistant or professor), a power differential between parties is not an innate aspect of the definition (Fitzgerald, Gelfand, & Drasgow, 1995). For example, most sexual harassment scholars, activists, and legal advocates would assert the potential for an employee to be sexually harassed by another employee of equal or less standing, or even a customer or client (Fitzgerald, Gelfand, & Drasgow, 1995). However, regardless of the specific roles held, implicit in the academic or employment context is that the individuals have at least some pre-defined relationship (whether as coworkers, or employee-

client). In contrast, we conceptualize public harassment to involve individuals who are strangers who may never interact again, or as individuals with only a general association at most (e.g., two people who wait at the same bus stop). Additionally, victims of sexual harassment in an academic or work setting are often exposed to “extended patterns of offensive behavior” that occur in the same context and by one or multiple familiar perpetrators (Schneider, Swan, & Fitzgerald, 1997). Victims of public harassment are also likely to experience the phenomenon repeatedly, yet in contrast to sexual harassment, this may occur in a variety of different settings (e.g., the grocery store; the bus) and by unique perpetrators (Kearl, 2014). This changing landscape of potential harassment experiences may be an important distinction between public harassment and sexual harassment, as typically defined.

Impact on Wellbeing. Many scholars and activists assert that gender-based public harassment hinders women’s autonomy and participation in the public sphere (Bowman, 1993; Davis, 1994; Gardner, 1995). Scholars theorize that this hindered autonomy is impacted by public harassment both directly, such as through modification of routines as a way to avoid harassment (e.g., Kearl, 2010; 2014) and secondarily, such as by increasing women’s self-objectification (Davidson, Gervais, and Sherd, 2015; Fairchild & Rudman, 2008) and contributing to increased anxiety (Davidson et al., 2016). To date, there is minimal empirical research on the impact of public harassment, although previous theoretical work on public harassment and related topics suggest its potential to significantly impact wellbeing (Logan, 2015; Davis, 1993; Kissing, 1993; Kearl, 2014). Examining the psychological impact of everyday gender-based harassment may be especially important given a diverse body of research about how ambient stressors can significantly contribute to psychological distress.

Our investigation of the negative effects of public harassment is informed by growing bodies of research on the psychological effects of microaggressions, daily hassles, and cumulative traumatic and/or sub-traumatic experiences. The literature on racial microaggressions indicates that “low-severity”, low-threat incidents of discrimination can have an additive effect, resulting in the potential for significant psychological stress and negative health outcomes (Kessler, Michecklson, & Williams, 1999). Additional research on microaggressions also suggests that subtler acts racism may be experientially connected to more overt aggressions (Sue et al., 2007). Kelly’s (1988) analysis of sexual violence, which posits that women’s experience of ‘commonplace intrusions’ such as sexist remarks or lewd gestures cannot be separated from the experience of ‘criminal intrusions’ such as sexual assault, proposes ideas reminiscent of these findings. Similarly, in a study of “subtle racism” in the form of race-based micro-invalidations and micro-insults, researchers found that Black undergraduate students who endorsed experiencing higher frequencies of race-related micro-invalidations and micro-insults had higher levels of general distress than those who endorsed fewer experiences (Mercer, Zeigler-Hill, Wallace, & Hayes, 2011).

Additionally, research findings about the relationship between continuous, low-level stress and psychological wellbeing support the importance of understanding the psychological impact of mundane experiences of public harassment. Research on continuous stressors, broadly defined as “the ongoing problems of life,” suggest that “the myriad of these everyday, commonplace events...more strongly affect wellbeing, rather than major but less frequent life events” (Serido, Almeida, & Wethington, 2004). This body of research has largely highlighted two distinct categories of everyday stressors: chronic stressors, the “persistent and recurrent difficulties of life” which may include ecological stressors like noise, crowding, or neighborhood

dynamics, and daily hassles, “the vast array of minor disruptions that...occur, forcing the individual to act on them” (Serido, Almeida, & Wethington, 2004). Research suggests that daily hassles and chronic stressors each uniquely contribute to psychological distress, and that the presence of chronic stressors intensified the impact of daily hassles on wellbeing (Serido, Almeida, & Wethington, 2004). Additionally, findings from multiple studies indicate that the type and frequency of daily hassles that an individual experiences are better predictors for associated psychological outcomes than are more major events in the recent past (Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Schilling, 1989; Eckenrode, 1984; Lazarus, 1984). Given that public harassment incidents are frequently minor disruptions to daily life, this research may be particularly relevant for understanding their impact on psychological wellbeing.

Finally, a large body of research suggests an increased risk for developing significant psychological distress (e.g., posttraumatic stress disorder) in people who have experienced multiple and repeated interpersonal trauma (e.g., see Buchanan & Fitzgerald, 2008; Campbell, Greeson, Bybee, & Raja, 2008; Krupnick et al., 2004), suggesting that temporal factors like recurrence may have an important role on the ultimate impact of a given experience above and beyond the specific nature of the incident. These findings also mirror results from the chronic stress and daily hassles literature that persistent or recurrent difficulties exacerbate the negative impact of daily disruptions on psychological wellbeing (e.g., Serido, Almeida, & Wethington, 2004). Other research suggests that chronicity may compound the impact of events that are not traditionally thought of as ‘traumatic’, resulting in symptoms of psychological distress (including the cluster of symptoms described as PTSD) (Jayasinghe et al., 2006; Rubin et al., 2008; Seides, 2010). These findings suggest that seemingly discrete incidents are not experienced independently and may be influenced both by incidents that have occurred before as well as

those that may occur in the future. For this reason, we are particularly interested in examining the effects of public harassment while accounting for trauma history.

Intersectionality. Importantly, while violence against women is too common for all women (Campbell, Greeson, Bybee, & Raja, 2008; Breiding, 2014; Black et al., 2011), not all women are equally vulnerable; a large body of research on sexual assault, sexual harassment, and domestic violence demonstrates that women of varying social identities experience distinct vulnerabilities for victimization (e.g., Smith et al, 2016; Campbell, Greeson, Bybee, & Raja, 2008). For example, research suggests that in contrast to non-Hispanic White women, Black and Indigenous women are at increased risk for intimate partner violence victimization and are more likely to be killed by their intimate partners (Crenshaw, 1993; Brown, 2012, Petrosky et al., 2017).

Intersectionality theory posits that any individual simultaneously embodies multiple group memberships (e.g., a woman may be African-American, heterosexual, middle class, and disabled), and that this situational embodiment is integral to accurately understand an individual's lived experience. This idea that an individual's multiple group memberships are not experienced separately but are instead plural and overlapping is an important consideration when understanding the potential impact of gender-based violence. Relatedly, those factors that make women differentially vulnerable for victimization may also differentially impact psychological outcomes after an experience. Research suggests that women who are at higher risk for victimization (e.g., women experience chronic stressors like poverty) also experience more severe mental health impacts after victimization, including longer lasting psychological distress (Campbell, Kub, Belknap, & Templin, 1997; Kaysen, Resick, & Wise, 2003).

Preliminary research on public harassment suggests that this type of experience may vary in similar ways to other forms of VAW, such that more marginalized women may experience more frequent victimization (Davis, 1993; Logan, 2015; Kearl, 2014). However, more empirical research is needed to understand this relationship. The current study begins to address this need by exploring the relationship between multiple, intersecting identities (i.e., self-identified ethnoracial group and sexual orientation) and the dimensions and frequency of harassment experienced. Given that intersectionality is often viewed as having a multiplicative rather than additive effect (e.g., Buchanan, 2005; Buchanan & Ormerod, 2002) group differences will be examined for ethnicity/race and sexual orientation and we will also examine the interaction of these two important facets of identity.

The Current Study

The current study has three primary aims: (a) to examine the nature and frequency of women's experiences of everyday gender-based harassment in public spaces along two dimensions; (b) to explore potential differences in how public harassment is experienced by women depending on their unique social locations (with regard to race/ethnicity and sexual orientation); and (c) to examine the relationship between the type and frequency of harassment experiences reported and reported general psychological distress, while controlling for other traumatic experiences.

Specifically, this study was designed to address the following research questions:

Research Question 1: What type and frequency of gender-based public harassment experiences do women report over the last 12 months?

Research Question 2: To what extent are there differences in the frequency of reported gender-based public harassment experiences between women of marginalized and dominant group

membership (i.e., based on ethnoracial identity and sexual orientation?) Is there an interaction effect between ethnoracial identity and sexual orientation?

Research Question 3: What is the relationship between the reported frequency of uninvited attention/appraisal and reactive intrusions experiences and general psychological distress? Are these dimensions public harassment related to psychological distress even when accounting for a history of other traumatic experiences?

CHAPTER 2: METHODS

Participants. Data were collected from 401 female undergraduate students enrolled at a public university in the Midwest between 03/21/2017 and 05/04/2017. Participants were recruited through the Psychology department subject pool, and students received course credit for their participation. Most participants were members of the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, with others indicating enrollment in the Division of General Studies, College of Education, College of Applied Health Sciences, College of Agricultural, Consumer and Environmental Sciences, College of Business, and others. 32 respondents (8%) were excluded from analysis due to extensive missing data ($n=18$), deviant response patterns that suggested mischievous responding (e.g., item response patterns like 1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3,...; survey completion time in less than 12 minutes) ($n=15$). The remaining sample consisted of 369 participants. Just over half of the final sample of participants were non-Hispanic White (53%, $n=196$), with the other half comprised of Asian (20%, $n=73$), Hispanic (16%, $n=61$), and Black participants (11%, $n=39$). The mean age of all participants in the final sample with age data was 19.5 years ($SD = 1.25$); 11 participants did provide their age, but affirmed they were over 18 years old. Most participants identified as heterosexual (89%, $n=328$), while just over a tenth identified as gay, lesbian, bisexual, pansexual, or queer (11%, $n=41$).

Table 1: Demographic characteristics

	Heterosexual	LGBQ	Total
Black or African-American	32	7	39
Asian or Asian American	64	9	73
Hispanic or Latinx	52	9	61
White (non-Hispanic)	180	16	196
Total	328	41	369

Note. LGBQ includes participants that identified as gay, lesbian, bisexual, pansexual, or queer.

Measures

The research utilized preexisting measures in addition to measures created specifically for the study.

Public Harassment

A self-report measure of participant experiences of gender-based public harassment (GBPH) was developed specifically for the study.

Scale Development. Items were developed to reflect a variety of theorized aspects of gender-based public harassment, including experiences of objectification, intrusive remarks, so-called “cat-calling”, and behaviors that range from potentially complimentary (e.g., say or shout something to you using complimentary language about your physical appearance [You're beautiful]) to offensive (e.g., say or shout something to you using critical or demeaning language about your gender). Although there is a wide spectrum of potential severity in gender-based public harassment experiences (e.g., being whistled at; being followed home) the focus of the current investigation was on the more ‘everyday’ aspects of these experiences. As a result, items were developed to reflect experiences that likely would not be captured by measures of sexual assault, with a goal of understanding both the prevalence of these incidents in women’s daily lives and their relationship to general psychological distress.

On the GBPH measure, participants were asked to rate how often they had experienced each of 36 potential public harassment situations. Each item began with the stem “In the last 12 months, how often have you personally experienced a man or men that you did not know...”, and ended with a behaviorally-specific prompt. Item creation was modeled after Fitzgerald et al.’s (1988; 1999) Sexual Experiences Questionnaire, which advocates for practices including a) using

behaviorally-specific questions (e.g., “...say or shout something to you using sexually explicit language”) and b) avoiding labels and colloquialisms when possible. (e.g., “...harass you”).

Participants rated each item on a six-point numerical scale (1=0-5 times total; 2=6-10 times total; 3=Once or twice a month; 4=1-3 times per week; 5=4-6 times per week; 6=every day). Example items include “In the last 12 months, how often have you personally experienced a man or men that you did not know: ... call you a slut or a whore?” and “...Make sexually suggestive gestures to you while in a public place?”

First, descriptive statistics and item correlations for all 36 gender-based public harassment items were examined. Bartlett’s test of sphericity (i.e., probability that correlations in a matrix are 0) was examined to determine the factorability of the correlation matrix and was determined to be statistically significant ($p < .001$), indicating that the data are appropriate for factor analysis. Additionally, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) indicated adequate sampling with a determined value of .92. Little’s (1988) Missing Completely at Random analysis was conducted using estimated marginal means, and indicated that the data were missing completely at random, $\chi^2 = 722.234$, $p = .993$. In addition, all items had less than or equal to 1.1% of missing values. Missing values were replaced with item means when conducting the exploratory factor analysis.

Exploratory Factor Analysis. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was then used to derive the scale from the total pool of items. The scale was hypothesized to have a multidimensional factor structure such that distinct types of public harassment would emerge as separate factors. Given that we believed the factors to be correlated, an oblique (promax) rotation was used to examine one, two, and three factor solutions. Across all EFA iterations, scree plots indicated a two-factor solution.

Items were ultimately retained in the measure if they demonstrated strong associations with one of the two core dimensions that emerged in the analysis (n=16 items). Following previous scale development recommendations (e.g., Worthington & Whittaker, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) the structure matrix was examined, and items that were conceptually dissimilar, did not load highly onto either subscale, or failed to differentiate between the two subscales (i.e., loading highly onto both subscales) were dropped (n=20). With these criteria met, we retained 16 of the original 36 items. In addition, a final EFA was conducted on the 16-item scale to ensure that the factor structure remained the same after deleting items (Table 2).

Naming the Dimensions. We theorize the two emergent factors to represent 1) public harassment directed at a target, which we call Uninvited Attention/Appraisal, and 2) a more interpersonally intrusive experience of public harassment, which we call Reactive Intrusions. Component 1, Uninvited Attention/Appraisal (UAA), consisted of 9 items and accounted for 45% of the variance. Higher scores indicate that a respondent endorsed experiencing this type of public harassment more frequently. Component 2, Reactive Intrusions (RI) consisted of 7 items and accounted for 14% of the variance. Higher scores on this subscale indicate endorsement of having experienced these situations more frequently. Both subscales demonstrated strong internal consistency as indicated by Cronbach's alpha coefficients (UAA $\alpha = .91$. RI $\alpha = .88$).

The first subscale, Uninvited Attention/Appraisal (UAA), includes nine items express a range of brief sexualized and/or gendered verbal and nonverbal behaviors that may be used to harass a target. Items include “make sexually suggestive gestures to you while in a public place”, and “approach you and use critical or demeaning language about your physical appearance and/or gender?”

The second subscale, Reactive Intrusions (RI), includes seven items that capture a harasser's verbal response to the target of harassment's behavior, and particularly responses to those behaviors that may be perceived as rejection or dismissal (e.g., "Accuse you of being 'stuck up' if you did not want to talk to him"). Importantly, in this conceptualization it does not matter whether the target ignores the harasser, actively rejects the harasser, or some other response; this dimension reflects the harasser's entitlement, not the victim's response.

Factor scores were created by averaging the total sum of scores for respective items such that a higher score indicated more frequent public harassment experiences. Participants who had more than two missing items on each scale were dropped from the analysis; otherwise, factor scores were averaged with the series mean for missing items when needed (UAA subscale: 13 missing responses [12 participants]; RI subscale: 10 missing responses [9 participants]) .

Table 2: Retained GBPH Scale Items and Factor Loadings.

Item	Factor Loading	
	1	2
Factor 1: Uninvited Appraisal ($\alpha = .91$)		
1. Say or shout critical or demeaning language about your gender?	.74	.28
2. Attempt to approach you and use critical or demeaning language about your physical appearance?	.80	.43
3. Make sexually suggestive gestures to you in a public place?	.75	.41
4. Make sexual remarks about you as you walked by?	.82	.37
5. Say or shout something to you using sexually explicit language?	.81	.46
6. Say or shout something to you using complimentary language about your physical appearance (e.g., "you're beautiful")?	.78	.33
7. Stand unnecessarily close to you?	.76	.44
8. Stare or 'leer' at you?	.75	.37
9. Touch you (e.g., grabbing your arm as you walked by)?	.65	.34

Table 2 (cont.)**Factor 2: Reactive Intrusions ($\alpha = .88$)**

10. Accuse you of not wanting to talk to him because he is 'ugly'?	.42	.78
11. Accuse you of acting like you were scared of him?	.42	.77
12. Accuse you of not wanting to talk to him because of his age?	.33	.78
13. Accuse you of being 'stuck up' if you didn't want to talk to him?	.58	.80
14. Tell you that you were 'leading him on'?	.48	.74
15. Tell you "Don't worry, I'm not going to rape you or anything"?	.26	.75
16. Comment on your behavior and say something like "By doing that, you're basically asking to be raped"?	.31	.77

Note. Based on Structure Matrix loadings. Principal Component Analysis with Promax Rotation Method.

Sexual Harassment

Participant's past year experiences with sexual harassment were measured using the Shortened Sexual Experiences Questionnaire-Department of Defense version (SEQ-DOD-s), a modified version of a widely utilized measure in sexual harassment research (Stark, Chernyshenko, Lancaster, Drasgow, & Fitzgerald, 2002). The SEQ-DoD-s measures 16 items reflecting four dimensions of sexual harassment: Sexist Hostility, Sexual Hostility, Unwanted Sexual Attention, and Sexual Coercion. All items utilized a standard stem ("In the past 12 months, has a boss, supervisor, teacher, or student in a position of authority over you:") which participants responded to on a binary scale (i.e., "Yes, I've experienced this"; "No, I haven't experienced this"). Sample items include "Made offensive sexist remarks" and "Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of sexual matters".

As described by Fitzgerald et al. (1999), the SEQ-DoD-s can be scored and interpreted in multiple ways, all such that higher scores represent greater endorsement of sexual harassment.

Options include a) assessing endorsement at the scale level (e.g., % of individuals who reported having experienced unwanted sexual attention), b) assigning individuals to categories based on the pattern of behaviors they report (e.g., “If an individual reported experiencing repeated requests for dates and being exposed to crude sexual remarks, that person would be assigned to a combined category of unwanted sexual attention and sexual hostility, rather than being counted separately in each category” p.254), and c) using a continuous score method. Additionally, method c has multiple options, including i) using the mean score, both scale by scale and overall, for all respondents, or ii) using the same process but calculating the mean score only of those individuals who endorse at least one item on the SEQ-DoD-s (Fitzgerald, Magley, Drasgow, & Waldo, 1999). The research questions proposed by the current study are best answered using the continuous scoring method for all respondents, which we have utilized in our analyses. In the current sample, the overall mean for endorsing any past year sexual harassment was 3.27, with a standard deviation of 4.44. Subscale means and standard deviations are as follows: Sexist Hostility (*Mean* = 1.28, *SD* = 1.48), Sexual Hostility 0.87 (1.42), Unwanted Sexual Attention 0.76 (1.32), and Sexual Coercion 0.35 (0.97). General reporting patterns in the current study are consistent with past research using the SEQ-DoD-s. Cronbach’s Alpha for the overall scale was .93, demonstrating good internal consistency.

Lifetime Trauma History

Lifetime trauma history was assessed using the Life Events Checklist (LEC). The LEC is a 17 item self-report measure that assesses exposure to 16 specific potentially-traumatic events; the last item assesses for any other extraordinarily distressing event not captured in the prior 16 items (Gray, Litz, Hsu, and Lombardo, 2004). Participants were given the prompt “Listed below are a number of difficult or stressful things that sometimes happen to people. For each event,

check one or more of the boxes to the right to indicate that: (a) It happened to you personally, (b) you witnessed it happen to someone else, (c) you learned about it happening to someone close to you, (d) you're not sure if it applies to you, or (e) it doesn't apply to you." In the current study, we limited our analysis to option a, endorsement of having personally experienced a given event. For each item, participants were coded as either having personally experienced the prompted event (1), or not having personally experienced the prompted event (0). Scale scores were created by averaging participants' sum for all items, such that a higher score indicates endorsement of more types of potentially traumatic events (PTE). In the current sample, the mean score for total PTE experienced was 1.50, with a standard deviation of 1.40. In this total PTE mean score we averaged each participant's responses for 16 of the 17 items. Because we are particularly interested in the relationship between everyday gender-based harassment and more extreme forms of gender-based violence, we decided to run the LEC item asking about prior sexual assault victimization (item 8) as a separate predictor, and so we did not include this item in the total PTE mean score. In the current study, the prior experience of sexual assault item had a mean score of .16, with a standard deviation of .37. Previous psychometric studies indicate that the LEC demonstrates adequate temporal stability and strong convergence with trauma-specific measures of psychological distress (Gray, Litz, Hsu, and Lombardo, 2004).

Psychological Distress

A measure of participant self-reported well-being was obtained using Kessler's (1992) Psychological Distress Scale (K10). The K10 is a self-report screening instrument that is widely used as a measure of general mental health (Yiengprugsawan, Kelly, & Tawatsupa, 2014; Andrew and Slade, 2001). Questions relate to participant experiences of anxiety and depressive symptoms over the last 30 days. Questions include "During the last 30 days, about how often did

you feel...: 1) tired for no good reason; 2) nervous; 3) so nervous nothing could you down; 4) hopeless; 5) restless or fidgety; 6) so restless that you could not sit still; 7) depressed; 8) everything was an effort; 9) so sad that nothing could cheer you up; 10) worthless. Participants rated each item on a five-point numerical rating scale as to how often they related to each prompt (1 = none of the time, 2= a little of the time, 3= some of the time, 4= most of the time, 5= all of the time). Item responses were summed, resulting in a score between 10, indicating no distress, and 50, indicating severe distress. Prior studies suggest participants with scores 20-24 are likely to have a mild level of distress, 25-29 a moderate level of distress, and 30-50 severe depression/anxiety disorders (Yiengprugsawan, Kelly, & Tawatsupa, 2014). Using a continuous score, the current study's mean was 21.75 with a standard deviation of 8.00, and a range of 40. These scores indicate that, on average, participants reported experiencing a mild level of psychological distress over the last 30 days. Cronbach's Alpha (an estimate of internal consistency) was .91.

Demographic Information

Demographic information was self-reported by participants. Participants were prompted to respond to a series of closed-ended questions regarding international student status, sexual orientation, ethnic and racial identity, age, and age. Participants were permitted to select more than one racial-ethnic category, and 16 participants selected more than one. Three participants selected both 'White/Caucasian' and 'Black/African American', six participants selected both 'White/Caucasian' and 'Hispanic or Latinx', six participants selected both 'White/Caucasian' and 'Asian or Asian American', and one participant selected both 'Asian or Asian American' and 'Hispanic or Latinx'. A multiracial group was considered, but ultimately rejected due to final sample size. Thus, for data analysis purposes, those participants who selected both

‘White/Caucasian’ and ‘Black/African American’ were coded as ‘Black/African American’, those who selected both ‘White/Caucasian’ and ‘Hispanic or Latinx’ were coded as ‘Hispanic or Latinx’, those who selected both ‘White/Caucasian’ and ‘Asian or Asian American’ were coded as ‘Asian or Asian American’, and the participant who selected both ‘Asian or Asian American’ and ‘Hispanic or Latinx’ was coded as ‘Asian or Asian American’.

Procedures

All participants were undergraduate students recruited from the psychology department subject pool. All participants self-selected into the study and were given course credit for their participation. All woman-identified students aged 18 and older were eligible to complete the survey for credit, however only domestic students were included in the final analysis (that is, international students were able to complete the survey but were excluded from the final analysis due to previously identified differences among domestic and international student populations). Survey administration was done through the online survey platform Qualtrics, and participants were eligible to complete the survey from any device with internet access, including a laptop or cell phone. Contact information for local and national sexual assault and mental health resources ran in a footer at the bottom of each page should a participant have desired to seek support. Participants were advised they could skip any item and discontinue the survey at any time with no penalty. Average completion times ranged from approximately 15 minutes to 45 minutes.

CHAPTER 3: RESULTS

Correlational Analyses. Means, standard deviations, and zero-order correlations among the study variables are presented in Table 3. As predicted, at a bivariate level the public harassment subscales were each significantly and positively correlated to one another and to a well-established measure of sexual harassment (SEQ-DoD-s). Both public harassment subscales and the SEQ-DoD-s are also significantly with lifetime sexual assault victimization and with a measure of lifetime potentially traumatic experiences (LEC).

Table 3: Measure Correlations and Descriptive Statistics ($n = 369$)

Variable	UA	RE	SEQ	LEC_Sum	LEC_8	K10
UA	-					
RE	.53**	-				
SEQ	.33**	.34**	-			
LEC_Sum	.25**	.21**	.18**	-		
LEC-8	.28**	.26**	.17**	.35**	-	
K10	.19**	.27**	.20**	.34**	.35**	-
<i>Range of Possible Scores</i>	1-6	1-6	0-16	0-16	0-1	10-50
<i>Range for Current Data</i>	1-5.67	1-4.57	0-16	0-8	0-1	10-50
<i>M</i>	1.82	1.15	3.27	1.50	.16	21.75
<i>SD</i>	.88	.41	4.44	1.40	.37	8.0
<i>α</i>	.91	.88	.93	NA.	NA.	.91

Note. UAA, Uninvited Attention/Appraisal; RI, Reactive Intrusions; SEQ, Sexual Experiences Questionnaire-DoD-Short; LEC_Sum, Life Events Checklist sum of items endorsed as “It happened to me personally”, without item 8; LEC_8, Life Events Checklist Item #8 (experienced sexual assault); K10, Kessler Psychological Distress Scale. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$.

Frequencies and Types of Public Harassment Experiences Endorsed

Descriptive statistics for GBPH scale items are provided in Table 4. The overall mean score on the Uninvited Attention/Appraisal (UAA) scale of 1.82 indicates experiencing the items on this subscale between five and six times on average over the past 12 months. Responses ranged from 1, indicating no or infrequent harassment at 0-5 experiences of each uninvited appraisal-type public harassment behavior in the last 12 months, to 5.67, indicating experiencing every item on the UAA nearly every day on average. The overall mean score on the Reactive Intrusions (RI) scale of 1.15 indicates that, on average, participants endorsed experiencing the seven reactive intrusions harassment experiences between 0 and 5 times each over the last 12 months; RI is far less common than UAA. Participant mean responses ranged from 1, indicating experiencing each item between 0 and 5 times on average over the past 12 months, to 6, indicating experiencing each of the seven items on this subscale everyday on average.

The most highly endorsed items came from the UAA dimension and include “stare or leer” ($Mean=2.45$, $SD=1.51$), “shout compliments about your physical appearance” ($Mean=2.19$, $SD=1.4$), and “stand unnecessarily close” ($Mean=2.13$, $SD=1.28$). The least frequently endorsed items came from the RI dimension, and include “saying ‘don’t worry, I’m not going to rape you’” ($Mean = 1.07$, $SD=0.35$) and “commenting on your behavior and saying something like, ‘By doing that, you’re basically asking to be raped’” ($Mean=1.08$, $SD=0.37$).

Table 4: GBPH Item Descriptive Statistics

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Factor 1: Uninvited Appraisal ($\alpha = .91$)		
1. Say or shout critical or demeaning language about your gender?	1.80	1.16
2. Attempt to approach you and use critical or demeaning language about your physical appearance or gender?	1.57	1.03

Table 4 (cont.)

3. Make sexually suggestive gestures to you in a public place?	1.50	0.94
4. Make sexual remarks about you as you walked by?	1.68	1.06
5. Say or shout something to you using sexually explicit language?	1.58	1.02
6. Say or shout something to you using complimentary language about your physical appearance (e.g., “you’re beautiful”)?	2.18	1.38
7. Stand unnecessarily close to you?	2.13	1.28
8. Stare or ‘leer’ at you?	2.45	1.51
9. Touch you (e.g., grabbing your arm as you walked by)?	1.49	0.97
Total:	1.82	0.88
Factor 2: Reactive Intrusions ($\alpha = .88$)		
10. Accuse you of not wanting to talk to him because he is ‘ugly’?	1.21	0.63
11. Accuse you of acting like you were scared of him?	1.14	0.53
12. Accuse you of not wanting to talk to him because of his age?	1.09	0.43
13. Accuse you of being ‘stuck up’ if you didn’t want to talk to him?	1.20	0.63
14. Tell you that you were ‘leading him on’?	1.28	0.72
15. Tell you “Don’t worry, I’m not going to rape you or anything”?	1.07	0.35
16. Comment on your behavior and say something like “By doing that, you’re basically asking to be raped”?	1.08	0.37
Total:	1.15	0.41

Group Differences

Public harassment scale descriptive statistics by group are provided in Table 5. To assess for statistically-significant group differences by ethnoracial identity on GBPH subscale scores we conducted a series of analyses of variance (ANOVAs) and post-hoc tests. Group differences

by sexual orientation were assessed using one-tailed independent samples *t*-tests. One-tailed tests were chosen to test preexisting hypotheses about the direction of group differences (i.e., LGBTQ group means were hypothesized to be higher than heterosexual group means). Finally, the potential interaction effect of these two variables was examined for each subscale using two-way ANOVAs. All reported statistics are one-tailed unless otherwise indicated.

Table 5: Between Group Descriptive Statistics (Ethnoracial Identity x Sexual Orientation)

Ethnoracial Group	Sexual Orientation	UAA		RI		n
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
Black	Heterosexual	2.20	1.11	1.31	.46	32
	LGBQ	2.62	1.07	1.76	1.35	7
	Total	2.27	1.10	1.39	.70	39
Asian-American	Heterosexual	1.45	.63	1.08	.23	64
	LGBQ	1.41	.44	1.14	.34	9
	Total	1.44	.61	1.09	.25	73
Hispanic/Latinx	Heterosexual	1.86	.88	1.10	.22	52
	LGBQ	1.62	.58	1.07	.19	9
	Total	1.82	.84	1.09	.22	61
White (non-Hispanic)	Heterosexual	1.84	.85	1.13	.40	180
	LGBQ	2.17	1.12	1.29	.67	16
	Total	1.87	.88	1.14	.41	196
Total	Heterosexual	1.80	.87	1.13	.36	328
	LGBQ	1.96	.97	1.29	.67	41
	Total	1.82	.88	1.15	.41	369

Note. UAA, Uninvited Attention/Appraisal; RI, Reactive Intrusions; LGBTQ, participants who identified as gay, lesbian, bisexual pansexual, or queer.

Ethnoracial Identity

Between-group descriptive statistics for varying ethnoracial identities are provided in Table 5. To test whether differences on mean GBPH scores exist between the four ethnoracial identity groups, a one-way ANOVA was conducted for each subscale. Levene's test indicated significant heteroscedasticity, or unequal variance, between ethnoracial groups on both of the GBPH scales. The Brown-Forsythe test, a measure of variance that is generally robust against unequal sample size, was also significant. The omnibus F-statistic was also significant, indicating that at least one ethnoracial group endorsed significantly different mean frequencies of public harassment as measured by both scales. Because both Levene's and Brown-Forsythe's tests were significant, indicating unequal variance among groups, the Games-Howell test was utilized when conducting post-hoc analyses. The Games-Howell test does not assume equal variance or sample size and is typically robust across a variety of normal and non-normal data (Games, Keselman, & Clinch, 1979).

Unwanted Attention/Appraisal Subscale. Results from the Games-Howell test indicated significant differences on endorsement of the UAA scale between women who identified as Asian-American ($Mean=1.44$, $SD=0.61$, $n=73$) and woman who identified as Black ($Mean=2.27$, $SD=1.10$, $n=41$), Hispanic ($Mean=1.82$, $SD=0.84$, $n=61$), and non-Hispanic White ($Mean=1.87$, $SD=0.87$, $n=196$), with satisfactory observed statistical power. These differences were such that Asian-American students reported significantly lower scores on the UAA scale than either Black, Hispanic, or non-Hispanic White women. Black, Hispanic, and non-Hispanic White women did not report significantly different scores.

Reactive Intrusions Subscale. Using the Games-Howell test, no significant differences were present between participants who identified as Black ($Mean=1.40$, $SD=0.70$), Asian-

American ($Mean=1.09$, $SD=0.25$), Hispanic ($Mean=1.09$, $SD=0.22$), and non-Hispanic White ($Mean=1.16$, $SD=0.48$). Satisfactory statistical power was observed.

Sexual Orientation

Between-group descriptive statistics for varying sexual orientations are provided in Table 5. Independent samples T-Tests were performed to examine potential group differences by sexual orientation.

Unwanted Attention/Appraisal Subscale. An independent samples t -test with equal variances assumed comparing UAA scores of participants who identified as straight or heterosexual ($Mean = 1.80$, $SD = 0.87$, $n = 328$) and participants who identified as lesbian, gay, bisexual, pansexual, or queer (LGBQ) ($Mean=1.96$, $SD=0.97$, $n=41$) was not significant.

Reactive Intrusions Subscale. An independent samples t -test with equal variances not assumed comparing RI scores of participants who identified as straight or heterosexual ($Mean = 1.13$, $SD=0.36$, $n=328$) and participants who identified as lesbian, gay, bisexual, pansexual, or queer (LGBQ) ($Mean=1.29$, $SD=0.67$, $n=41$) was trending towards significance ($p=.075$).

Ethnoracial Identity x Sexual Orientation

An exploratory two-way ANOVA was conducted to investigate the potential interaction effect between ethnoracial identity and sexual orientation on GBPH scores. Importantly, as the limited sample size in some cells does not meet the criteria for this test to be robust to assumptions of the test, this analysis is preliminary. Additionally, low statistical power was likely an issue for both subscales. Between-group descriptive statistics for varying sexual orientations by ethnoracial identity are provided in Table 5.

Unwanted Appraisal Subscale. No significant interaction was observed on UA scores $F(3, 366) 1.07$, $p= .18$.

Reactive Intrusions Subscale. Similarly, no significant interaction was observed on RE scores $F(3, 366) 1.76, p = .075$.

Hierarchical Regression Analyses

Next, we used hierarchical regression analyses to examine the relationship between self-reported psychological distress and the GBPH scores. First, to account for variance due to demographic variables we entered dummy-coded variables for ethnoracial identity and sexual orientation. In the second step, we entered a factor score for experienced lifetime trauma (as measured by items 1-7 and 9-17 on LEC), endorsement of prior sexual assault victimization (item 8 on LEC), and measures of past year sexual harassment experiences (SEQ-DoD-s). In the third step we entered UAA and RI subscale scores.

Table 6 displays the results of this analysis. Results indicated that, after accounting for demographic variables, there was a significant increase in R^2 after we entered measures of lifetime trauma, sexual assault, and sexual harassment, $\Delta F(3, 361) = 21.51, p < 0.001, \Delta R^2 = 0.14$. Unsurprisingly, women reported greater psychological distress with greater endorsement of prior trauma and victimization experiences. Specifically, participants reported significantly higher levels of psychological distress with increased experiences of lifetime trauma (not including sexual assault), $t = 4.13, p < 0.001$, having experienced sexual assault victimization $t = 4.07, p < 0.001$, and with increased past year exposure to sexual harassment $t = 2.47, p = .01$.

Next, when the two public harassment subscales were entered into the model, there was a smaller, but significant, increase in R^2 , $F(2, 359) = 5.15, p < 0.01, \Delta R^2 = 0.02$. Results from this step indicated that participants reported significantly higher levels of psychological distress with increased experiences of public harassment measured by the RI subscale, $t = 2.83, p < .01$. Endorsement of the UAA subscale was not significantly predictive of psychological distress

$t=.19, p=.85$. Notably, the addition of the RI subscale into the model impacted the predictive significance of the sexual harassment measure, $t=1.3, p=.18$.

Table 6: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Psychological Distress (n=369)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β
Ethnoracial Identity									
Black	.01	.17	.00	-.09	.16	-.03	-.18	.16	-.06
Asian-American	.26	.13	.10	.23	.12	.09	.26	.13	.10*
Hispanic/Latinx	.16	.14	.06	.10	.13	.04	.14	.13	.05
Sexual Orientation	.76	.16	.24**	.46	.15	.14**	.44	.15	.14**
Life Events Checklist Total				.21	.05	.21**	.20	.05	.20**
Prior Sexual Assault Experience				.21	.05	.21**	.18	.05	.17**
Sexual Experiences Questionnaire				.12	.05	.12*	.07	.05	.07
Uninvited Attention/ Appraisal							.01	.06	.01
Reactive Intrusions							.16	.06	.16**
R^2			.07			.21			.23
F for ΔR^2			6.92**			21.51**			5.15**

Note. All variables were standardized at their means. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$.

Examining Between-Group Variance in Subscale Means. An examination of the variance of reported scores by ethnoracial and sexual orientation identities imparts additional interpretive guidance. Although no statistically-significant differences in mean scores were identified, Levene's statistic indicated significant differences in variance between ethnoracial groups on both subscales. As displayed by Figure 1 and Figure 2, Black women's endorsement patterns reflect the widest dispersion, and thus the greatest variability, in responses. Additionally, Black women were nearly twice as likely as any other ethnoracial group to endorse the highest observed scores in the sample (i.e., UAA mean of 3.0 or more [Figure 1]; RI mean of 2.0 or more [Figure 2]). This indicates that while average responses may not be statistically different between ethnoracial groups, there may be important differences in the overall pattern of those responses. For example, in the current study, it appears that Black women were most likely to endorse the polar responses, while other ethnoracial groups were more likely to report endorsements somewhere near the middle of observed responses.

Relatedly, queer respondents in the current sample were more likely to report the highest observed scores in the sample; queer women were nearly twice as likely as heterosexual women to report a UAA mean of 3.0 or more (Figure 3), and three times as likely to report an RI mean of 2.0 or more (Figure 4). Differences in between group variance is particularly striking when considering an interaction effect of ethnoracial identity and sexual orientation. While endorsement patterns for the UAA subscale remain relatively consistent across groups (Figure 5), queer Black women were significantly more likely than any other group to report RI mean scores of 2.0 or more (Figure 6).

Figure 1: Percentage of each ethnoracial group endorsing UAA mean of 3.0 or greater.

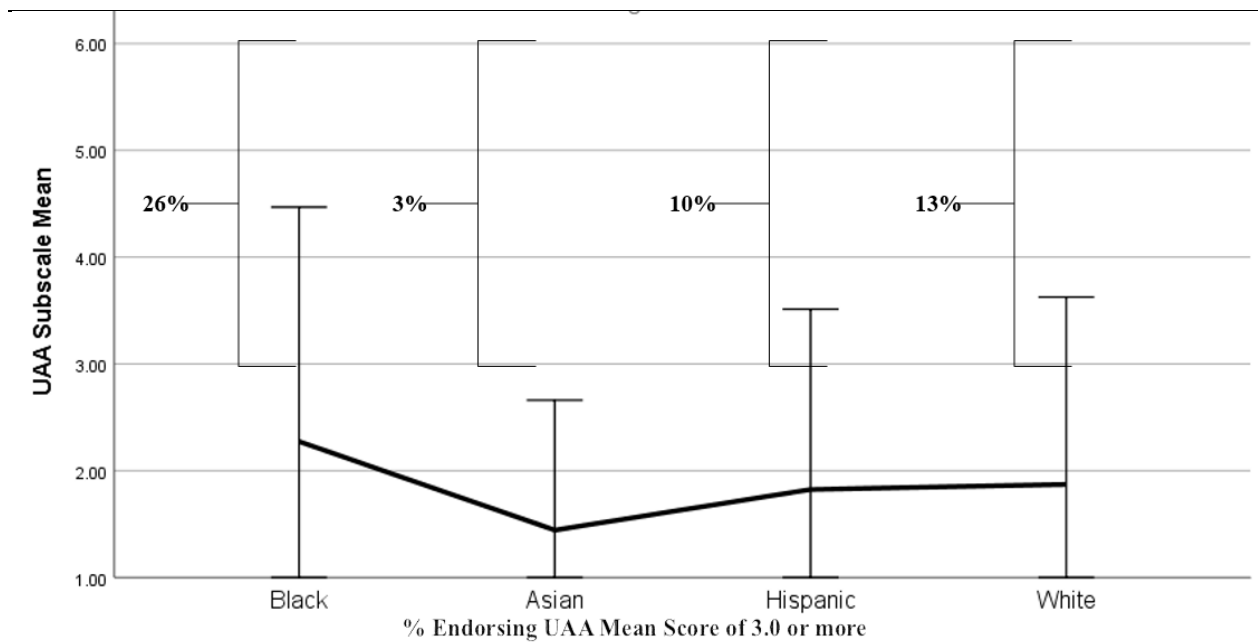


Figure 2: Percentage of each ethnoracial group endorsing RI mean of 2.0 or greater.

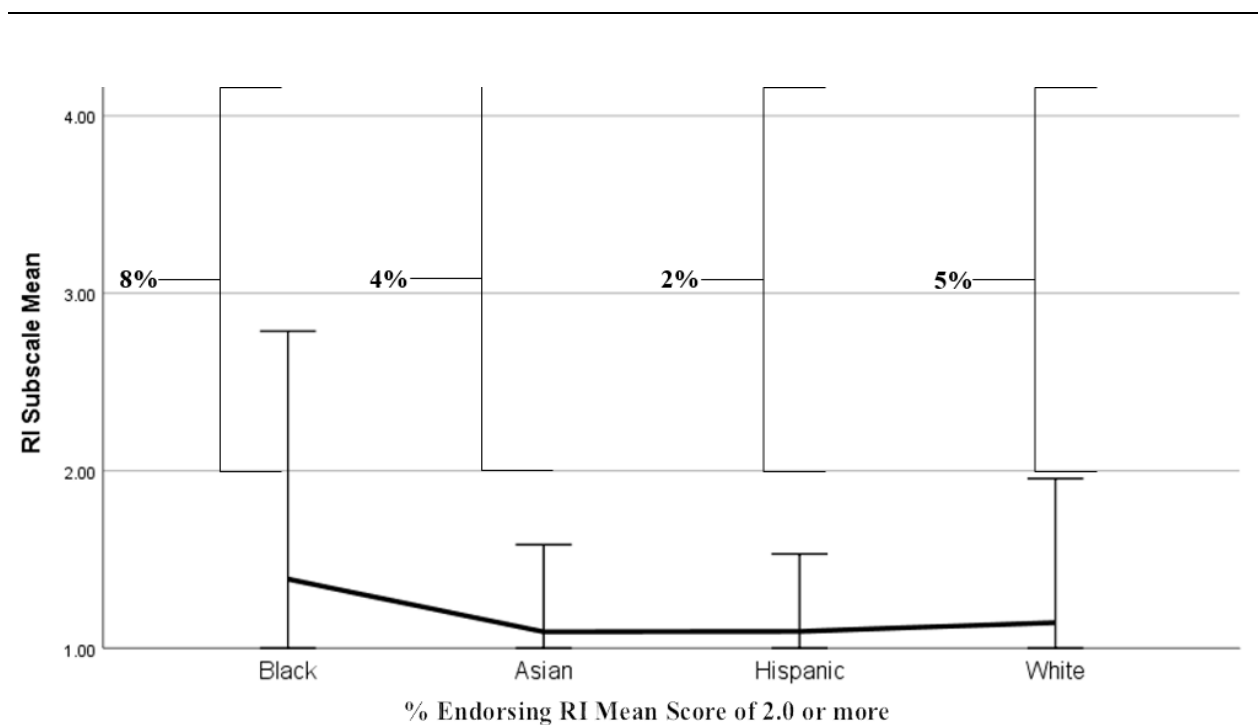


Figure 3: Percentage of each sexual orientation group endorsing UAA mean of 3.0 or greater.

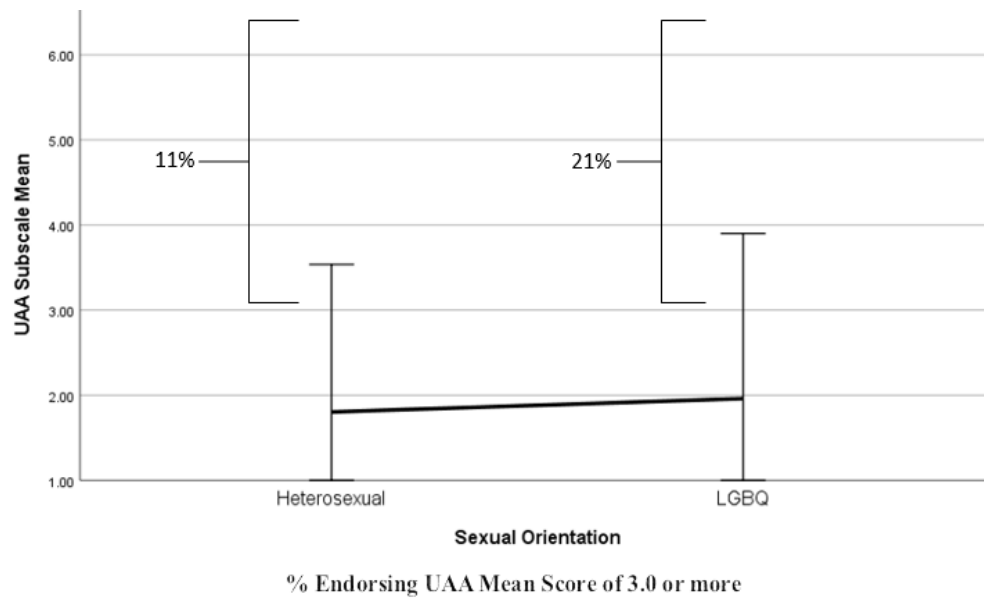


Figure 4: Percentage of each sexual orientation group endorsing RI mean of 2.0 or greater.

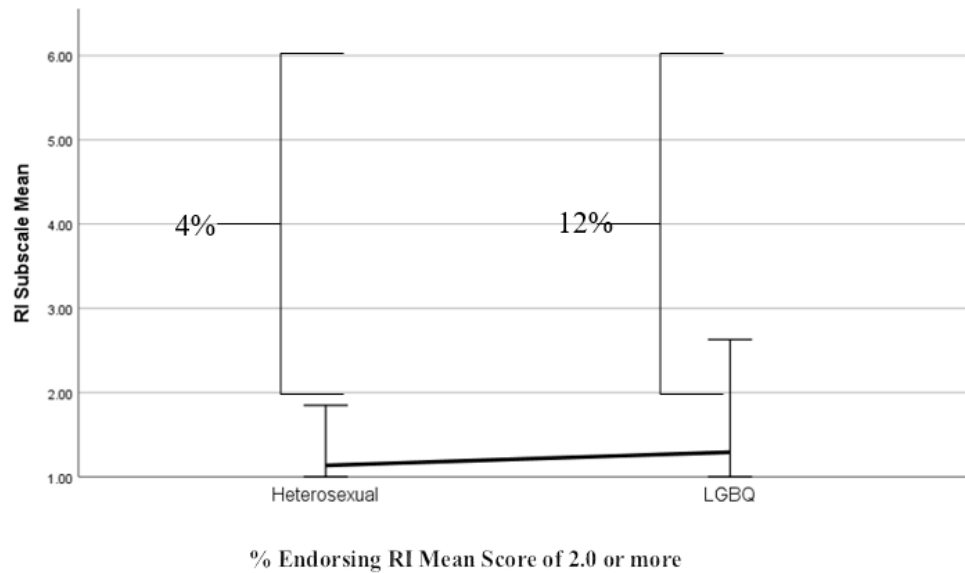


Figure 5: Plot of UAA subscale means by ethnnoracial and sexual orientation groups.

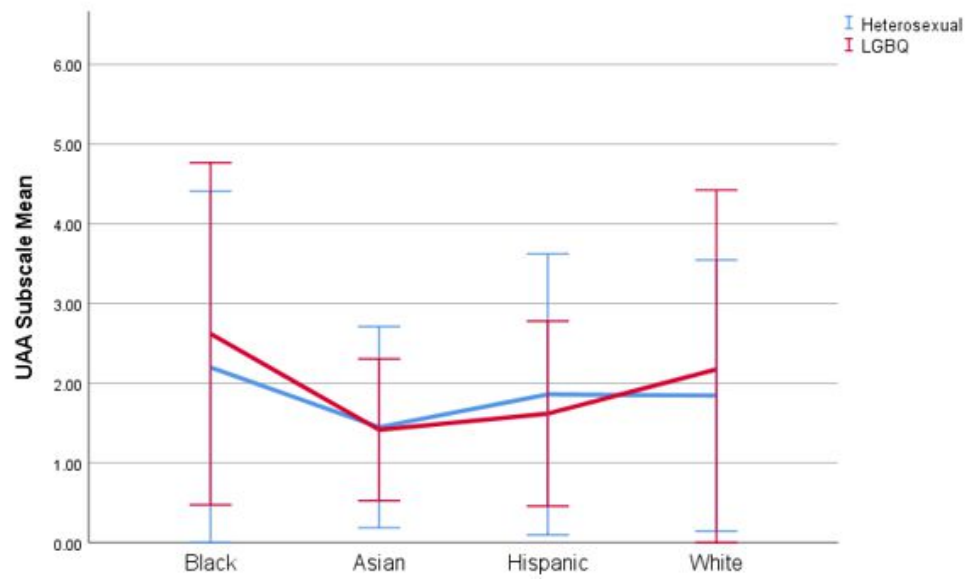
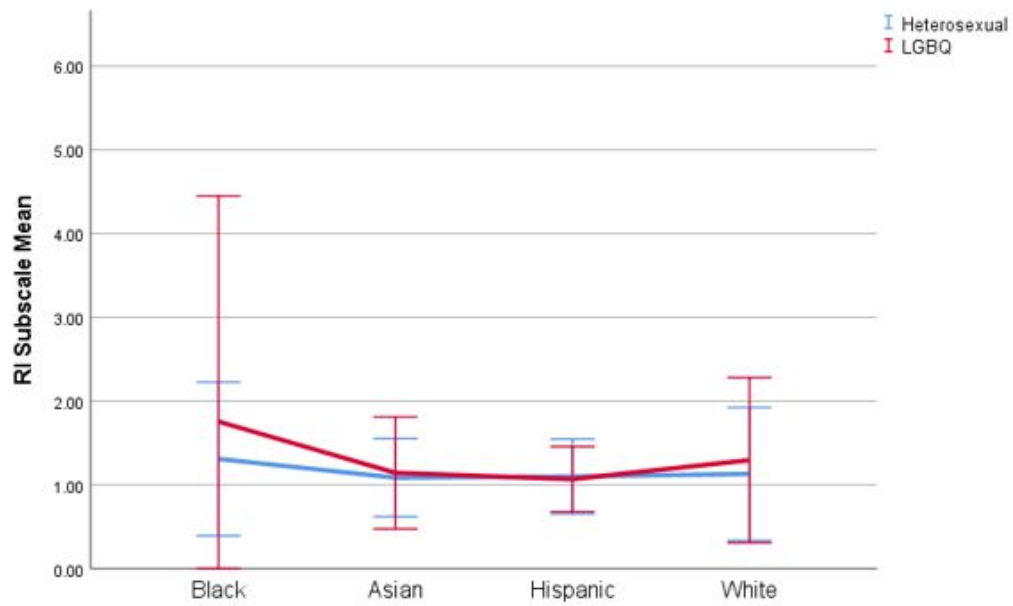


Figure 6: Plot of RI subscale means by ethnnoracial and sexual orientation groups.



CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION

The current study assesses endorsement of gender-based public harassment on two dimensions: 1) uninvited attention/appraisal (UAA), and 2) reactive intrusions (RI). These dimensions reflect both empirical relevance and theoretical alignment with existing work on the topic. The uninvited attention/appraisal dimension represents a range of brief sexualized and/or gendered verbal and nonverbal behaviors a harasser may enact towards a woman, while the reactive intrusions component captures experiences in which the harasser appears to verbally chide the harassment victim into modifying her behavior in some way he deems more favorable (e.g., continuing to engage with the harasser).

Women in the current study reported a wide variety of experiences across both dimensions of public gendered harassment. Black, Hispanic, and non-Hispanic White women reported experiencing harassment at similar rates. Asian-American women endorsed significantly lower rates of experiences of uninvited attention/appraisal and comparable rates of experiences of reactive intrusions. On average queer women endorsed experiencing more incidents of reactive intrusions, a finding which was trended towards statistical significance. Low observed statistical power (at $\alpha=.05$) likely impacted the statistical significance of emergent differences between heterosexual and queer respondents, and it is possible that with greater power these differences would be statistically significant.

Finally, results from a regression analysis indicated that the reactive intrusions dimension contributes statistically significant predictive power for psychological distress, even when accounting for other potentially traumatic experiences.

Endorsed Dimensions and Frequencies of Public Harassment Experiences. Women report varied levels of the frequency of gender-based public harassment experienced. Women in

the current study reported a mean UAA score of 1.82, indicating experiencing the items on this subscale between five and six times over the past year on average. The reported RI mean of 1.15 indicates experiencing the 7 items on this subscale between zero and five times in the past 12 months. However, it is important to note that there is substantial range in endorsement, with some women reporting experiencing these dimensions of harassment much more frequently; 45 women reported a UAA mean of 3.0 or more (indicating an average item endorsement of “once or twice per month over the past year”), and 17 women reported an RI mean of 2.0 or more (indicating an average item endorsement of “between six and 11 times over the past year”). This range in experience reflects an empirical understanding that while most women are likely to experience public harassment at least once in their life, some women will encounter these experiences much more often (Kearl, 2014; Hollaback, 2016, Stop Street Harassment, 2018).

Summary of Intersectional Analyses. There are many reasons why some women may be vulnerable to experiencing public harassment at higher rates, including socio-economic status (e.g., relying on public transit instead of a personal vehicle), dis/ability status, ethnoracial identity, and sexual orientation (Crenshaw, 1990; Cho, Crenshaw, McCall, 2013; Crenshaw, 1989; Kearl, 2014). While to some extent in a patriarchal society all women are marginalized due to their gender, intersectionality theory posits that women with other identities that are also marginalized (e.g., women of color; women with disabilities; queer women) may experience multiple layers of oppression in contrast to a woman without these other marginalized identities. Thus, consistent with existing theory on intersectionality (e.g., Crenshaw, 1989; Beal, 1970; Buchanan, 2005) and power and privilege (e.g., Purdie-Vaughns & Eibach, 2008; Weber, 1998; Prilleltensky, 2008), we expected that non-Hispanic White women would report less public harassment than Black, Asian-American, and Hispanic women of color (WOC), and that

heterosexual participants would report experiencing less public harassment than queer women. Furthermore, informed by theories of compounding oppression (e.g., Kanuha, 1990; Singh, 2013) we predicted that there would be an interaction effect between ethnoracial identity and sexual orientation such that heterosexual White women would report the lowest average frequencies on both dimension of public harassment, and that queer Black women would report the highest average frequencies.

Contrary to our expectations, women of different ethnoracial groups endorsed statistically similar rates of experience on both public harassment dimensions. The only exception to this is a finding that Asian-American women endorsed significantly fewer experiences of uninvited attention/appraisal experiences on average than did women of other ethnoracial identities. While unexpected, this result is consistent with prior research which found that Asian women reported significantly less frequent sexual harassment than did White women (Ho, Dinh, Bellefontaine, & Irving, 2012). Interestingly, the same study by Ho et al., found that Asian women overall reported significantly more psychological distress than did White women, which parallels endorsement patterns of psychological distress by Asian-American women in the current study (Ho, Dinh, Bellefontaine, & Irving, 2012). It may be that the current conceptualization and/or measurement of gender-based harassment experiences (i.e., sexual harassment; public harassment) does not adequately capture the way gender-based harassment is experienced by Asian women in the United States. In that instance, a culturally-specific measure that includes the sexualized ethnic stereotypes and exotification of Asian-American women (e.g., “China doll” or “geisha girls”), may be more appropriate for accurately capturing public and sexual harassment experiences in this population (Ho, Dinh, Bellefontaine, & Irving, 2012).

In the current study, there were no statistically significant differences between mean endorsement rates for queer and heterosexual participants on either dimension of public harassment, though queer women's higher endorsement of reactive intrusions experiences was trending towards significance. It is possible that the relatively limited number of queer women in the sample suppressed the overall statistical impact of these group differences, and that with greater power this finding would be statistically significant. Similarly, there was no statistically-significant ethnoracial identity by sexual orientation interaction effect on either dimension.

Examining Between-Group Variance in Subscale Means. An examination of the variance of reported scores by ethnoracial and sexual orientation indicated that Black women's endorsement patterns reflect the widest dispersion, and thus the greatest variability, in observed responses. Black women were nearly twice as likely as any other ethnoracial group to endorse the highest observed scores in the sample (i.e., UAA mean of 3.0 or more; RI mean of 2.0 or more). This indicates that while average responses may not be statistically different between ethnoracial groups, there may be important differences in the overall pattern of those responses. For example, in the current study, it appears that Black women were most likely to endorse the polar responses, while other ethnoracial groups were more likely to report endorsements somewhere near the middle of observed responses.

Relatedly, queer respondents in the current sample were more likely to report the highest observed scores in the sample; queer women were nearly twice as likely as heterosexual women to report a UAA mean of 3.0 or more (Figure 3), and three times as likely to report an RI mean of 2.0 or more (Figure 4). Differences in between group variance is particularly striking when considering an interaction effect of ethnoracial identity and sexual orientation. While endorsement patterns for the UAA subscale remain relatively consistent across groups, queer

Black women were significantly more likely than any other group to report RI mean scores of 2.0 or more (Figure 6). This lends some support for considering the impact of “compounding oppressions” in the context of public harassment experiences, and the idea, that similar to other forms of violence, women’s overlapping identities (for example, a bisexual Black woman) may increase vulnerability for experiencing additive impacts of oppression. Future research is needed to investigate whether these increased impacts are indeed additive, as opposed to multiplicative.

Psychological Distress. We also investigated the relationship between the reported frequency of public harassment experiences and self-reported psychological distress, including whether the dimensions of harassment explored in this study are predictive even when accounting for other traumatic experiences. As far as we know, this study is the first to systematically examine the relationship between frequency of public harassment experience and psychological distress in this way.

Regression results indicated a unique and significant impact of the public harassment dimensions on severity of self-reported psychological distress; this adds support to the idea that public harassment as measured in the current study is a distinct phenomenon from sexual harassment, sexual assault, and other potentially traumatic experiences.

Regression analyses also demonstrated that entering both dimensions of public harassment simultaneously resulted in significantly better prediction of psychological distress ratings than demographic variables alone (i.e., ethnoracial identity and sexual orientation). Further assessment of individual scale coefficients indicates that predictive power is largely driven by the reactive intrusions subscale, a finding which is supported by additional analyses discussed below. Findings also supported our hypothesis that endorsement of more frequent public harassment experiences would be predictive of higher psychological distress, even when

accounting for other traumatic experiences, including sexual harassment. This finding adds support to the theory that sexual harassment and public harassment are conceptually related but distinct phenomena. One plausible distinction that may account for differential distress from each of these experiences is the nature of the perpetrator. In sexual harassment, women may experience harassment from a number of people, but the harassment typically occurs in a specific context (i.e., academic or employment); in contrast, public harassment as we have defined it typically occurs across contexts and with varying perpetrators (Schneider and Swan, 1997). It may be that this unanticipated, dynamic nature of public harassment uniquely contributes to psychological distress. Alternatively, it may be that public harassment as measured in the current study is more reflective of the nature of ‘daily hassles’ whereas incidents of sexual harassment are experienced as a more major life event. That multiple studies have found daily hassles to be a better predictor for psychological outcomes than more major life events in the recent past may help to explain this finding (Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, & Schilling, 1989; Eckenrode, 1984; Lazarus, 1984).

Notably, when separately entering each of the two public harassment dimensions in the analysis, only the reactive intrusions scale remained significantly predictive in the final model. This may potentially indicate that the distress associated with uninvited attention and appraisal-type harassment experiences may be captured by other types of potentially traumatic experiences (e.g., sexual harassment), but that reactive intrusions harassment experiences uniquely and independently contribute to experienced psychological distress. This finding may have emerged for three reasons. First, it may be that the behaviors captured by this dimension are perceived as more intrusive, thus resulting in more distress. Alternatively, it may be that the directive nature of these types of experiences are more difficult to ignore, potentially pressuring the victim to

respond and thus prolonging the incident. Finally, this dimension may be more predictive of psychological distress due to the fact that queer women generally endorsed marginally higher average responses, and that queer women both in the current sample and in prior work are found to have higher psychological distress (Cochran, Sullivan, & Mays, 2014; Ueno, 2005).

Taken together, data from the final model indicates that social identity including ethnoracial identity and sexual orientation, prior traumatic experience, prior sexual assault victimization, prior sexual harassment experience, frequency of uninvited appraisal experiences, and frequency of reactive intrusions experiences account for approximately 25 % of the variance in reported psychological distress in the current sample. Sexual orientation, lifetime traumatic experiences, lifetime sexual assault victimization, and frequency of encountering reactive intrusions over the last 12 months each significantly and independently contribute predictive power to the model. While we expected public harassment experiences to have some impact on reported distress, we did not anticipate the reactive intrusions scale to indicate a standardized coefficient similar to the prior sexual assault variable. While it should not be overstated, this surprising finding suggests a utility in expanding our understanding of poly-victimization, perhaps including attention to ways that even routinized, “trivial” experiences of gender-based violence may have significant consequences for psychological wellbeing.

Limitations. This study has a number of limitations worth noting. First, the study relied on cross-sectional self-report data, thus increasing the potential influence of factors like selective memory and recall bias on frequency estimations. Of course, cross-sectional data is also limited in that one cannot infer causality from results; for example, it may be that women with higher psychological distress somehow experience more harassment as a result of that distress, rather than greater harassment resulting in higher distress. Second, the study was completed using a

sample of undergraduate college students, limiting generalizability. Relatedly, the sample was largely non-Hispanic White and heterosexual, which limited observed statistical power, potentially impeding the ability to identify statistically significant differences outside of these populations. Finally, there were some methodological limitations to using an exploratory measure of public harassment. For example, response options for frequency included one option for “zero to five times”, limiting the ability to make comparisons between respondents who had *never* experienced public harassment and those who had *minimally* experienced public harassment. Future studies should increase recruitment of women of color and queer participants, and should consider a community sample to better explore questions of generalizability in diverse samples. Additionally, we are continuing to refine the exploratory public harassment measure, and plan to use an improved measure in future studies.

Conclusion. The present study sought to build on prior research that suggests that public harassment is a somewhat frequent occurrence for many women, and that victims often perceive these experiences negatively (e.g., Vera-Gray, 2016; Kearl, 2014, Davis, 1993). The study expands upon existing research by a) furthering systematic measurement on two dimensions of public harassment, b) assessing endorsement of public harassment experiences using an intersectional framework, and c) examining the impact of these dimensions of public harassment on psychological distress while accounting for other traumatic experiences.

Ultimately, this study adds preliminary support to our conceptualization of public harassment as a routine experience for many women. Findings hint at the importance of using an intersectional framework for understanding heterogeneity across experiences of gender-based public harassment. Additionally, the relationship between psychological distress and reported frequency of encountering reactive intrusions, even when accounting for other experiences of

gender-based violence, suggests the potential importance of considering temporal factors like chronicity in addition to more categorical indicators of experience (i.e., whether ever experienced). Taken together, the current study contributes to knowledge of the “[subtle] and...pervasive forms of abuse of women ... woven into the fabric of our society” (Klein, p.64-65). Advancing towards more equitable communities requires acknowledging the ways in which women’s experiences of discrimination in public spaces, including gender-based public harassment, may become routinized and overlooked.

REFERENCES

- Andrew, G., & Slade, T. (2001). Interpreting scores on the Kessler psychological distress scale. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Public Health*, 25(6), 494-497.
- Bates, L. (2016). *Everyday sexism: The project that inspired a worldwide movement*. Macmillan.
- Beal, F. (1970). Double jeopardy: to be black and female: In R. Morgan's (1970) editor, *Sisterhood is Powerful*.
- Black, M., Basile, K., Breiding, M., Smith, S., Walters, M., Merrick, M., Chen, J., & Stevens, M. (2011). National intimate partner and sexual violence survey: 2010 summary report.
- Bolger, N., DeLongis, A., Kessler, R. C., & Schilling, E. A. (1989). Effects of daily stress on negative mood. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 57(5), 808.
- Bollen, K. A., & Jackman, R. W. (1985). Regression diagnostics: An expository treatment of outliers and influential cases. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 13(4), 510-542.
- Bowman, C. G. (1993). Street harassment and the informal ghettoization of women. *Harvard Law Review*, 517-580.
- Breiding, M. J. (2014). Prevalence and characteristics of sexual violence, stalking, and intimate partner violence victimization—National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey, United States, 2011. *Morbidity and mortality weekly report. Surveillance summaries (Washington, DC: 2002)*, 63(8), 1.
- Brown, G. (2012). Ain't I a Victim-The Intersectionality of Race, Class, and Gender in Domestic Violence and the Courtroom. *Cardozo JL & Gender*, 19, 147.
- Buchanan, N. T. (2005). The nexus of race and gender domination: The racialized sexual harassment of African American women. *In the company of men: Re-discovering the links between sexual harassment and male domination*, 294-320.

- Buchanan, N. T., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (2008). Effects of racial and sexual harassment on work and the psychological well-being of African American women. *Journal of occupational health psychology, 13*(2), 137.
- Buchanan, N. T., & Ormerod, A. J. (2002). Racialized sexual harassment in the lives of African American women. *Women & Therapy, 25*(3-4), 107-124.
- Buchanan, N. T., Settles, I. H., Wu, I. H., & Hayashino, D. S. (2018). Sexual harassment, racial harassment, and well-being among Asian American women: An intersectional approach. *Women & Therapy, 41*(3-4), 261-280.
- Campbell, J. C., Kub, J., Belknap, R. A., & Templin, T. N. (1997). Predictors of depression in battered women. *Violence Against Women, 3*(3), 271-293.
- Campbell, R., Greeson, M. R., Bybee, D., & Raja, S. (2008). The co-occurrence of childhood sexual abuse, adult sexual assault, intimate partner violence, and sexual harassment: a mediational model of posttraumatic stress disorder and physical health outcomes. *Journal of consulting and clinical psychology, 76*(2), 194.
- Cho, S., Crenshaw, K. W., & McCall, L. (2013). Toward a field of intersectionality studies: Theory, applications, and praxis. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society, 38*(4), 785-810.
- Cochran, S. D., Sullivan, J. G., & Mays, V. M. (2003). Prevalence of mental disorders, psychological distress, and mental health services use among lesbian, gay, and bisexual adults in the United States. *Journal of consulting and clinical psychology, 71*(1), 53.
- Crenshaw, K. (1990). Mapping the margins: Intersectionality, identity politics, and violence against women of color. *Stan. L. Rev., 43*, 1241.

- Crenshaw, K. (2018). Demarginalizing the intersection of race and sex: A Black feminist critique of antidiscrimination doctrine, feminist theory, and antiracist politics [1989]. In *Feminist legal theory* (pp. 57-80). Routledge.
- Crouch, M. (2009). Sexual harassment in public places. *Social Philosophy Today*, 25, 137-148.
- Davidson, M. M., Butchko, M. S., Robbins, K., Sherd, L. W., & Gervais, S. J. (2016). The mediating role of perceived safety on street harassment and anxiety. *Psychology of Violence*, 6(4), 553.
- Davidson, M. M., Gervais, S. J., & Sherd, L. W. (2015). The ripple effects of stranger harassment on objectification of self and others. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 39(1), 53-66.
- Davis, D. (1993). The harm that has no name: Street harassment, embodiment, and African American women. *Ucla Women's LJ*, 4, 133.
- Di Leonardo, M. (1981). The political economy of street harassment. *Aegis*, 51-57.
- Eckenrode, J. (1984). Impact of chronic and acute stressors on daily reports of mood. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 46(4), 907.
- Erdreich, B. L., Slavet, B. S., & Amador, A. C. (1995). *The Rule of Three in Federal Hiring: Boon or Bane?*. MERIT SYSTEMS PROTECTION BOARD WASHINGTON DC OFFICE OF POLICY AND EVALUATION.
- Fairchild, K. (2010). Context effects on women's perceptions of stranger harassment. *Sexuality & Culture*, 14(3), 191-216.
- Fairchild, K., & Rudman, L. A. (2008). Everyday stranger harassment and women's objectification. *Social Justice Research*, 21(3), 338-357.

- Fitzgerald, L. F. (1993). Sexual harassment: Violence against women in the workplace. *American Psychologist*, 48(10), 1070.
- Fitzgerald, L. F., Gelfand, M. J., & Drasgow, F. (1995). Measuring sexual harassment: Theoretical and psychometric advances. *Basic and applied social psychology*, 17(4), 425-445.
- Fitzgerald, L. F., Magley, V. J., Drasgow, F., & Waldo, C. R. (1999). Measuring sexual harassment in the military: the sexual experiences questionnaire (SEQ—DoD). *Military Psychology*, 11(3), 243-263.
- Fitzgerald, L. F., Shullman, S. L., Bailey, N., Richards, M., Swecker, J., Gold, Y., Ormerod, M., & Weitzman, L. (1988). The incidence and dimensions of sexual harassment in academia and the workplace. *Journal of vocational behavior*, 32(2), 152-175.
- Fogg-Davis, H. G. (2006). Theorizing black lesbians within black feminism: A critique of same-race street harassment. *Politics & Gender*, 2(1), 57-76.
- Games, P. A., Keselman, H. J., & Clinch, J. J. (1979). Tests for homogeneity of variance in factorial designs. *Psychological Bulletin*, 86(5), 978.
- Gardner, C. B. (1995). *Passing by: Gender and public harassment*. Univ of California Press.
- Gelfand, M. J., Fitzgerald, L. F., & Drasgow, F. (1995). The structure of sexual harassment: A confirmatory analysis across cultures and settings. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 47(2), 164-177.
- Gray, M. J., Litz, B. T., Hsu, J. L., & Lombardo, T. W. (2004). Psychometric properties of the life events checklist. *Assessment*, 11(4), 330-341.

- Gruber, J. E. (1992). A typology of personal and environmental sexual harassment: Research and policy implications for the 1990s. *Sex Roles*, 26(11-12), 447-464.
- Harned, M. S. (2004). Does it matter what you call it? The relationship between labeling unwanted sexual experiences and distress. *Journal of consulting and clinical psychology*, 72(6), 1090.
- Ho, I. K., Dinh, K. T., Bellefontaine, S. A., & Irving, A. L. (2012). Sexual harassment and posttraumatic stress symptoms among Asian and White women. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma*, 21(1), 95-113.
- Jayasinghe, N., Jedel, S., Leck, P., Difede, J., Klausner, E., & Spielman, L. (2006). Are male disaster workers with Vietnam military service at greater risk for PTSD than peers without combat history?. *The Journal of nervous and mental disease*, 194(11), 859-863.
- Kanuha, V. (1990). Compounding the triple jeopardy: Battering in lesbian of color relationships. *Women & Therapy*, 9(1-2), 169-184.
- Kaysen, D., Resick, P. A., & Wise, D. (2003). Living in danger: The impact of chronic traumatization and the traumatic context on posttraumatic stress disorder. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, 4(3), 247-264.
- Kearl, H. (2010). *Stop street harassment: Making public places safe and welcoming for women*. ABC-CLIO.
- Kearl, H. (2014). Unsafe and harassed in public spaces: A national street harassment report.
- Kelly, L. (1987). The continuum of sexual violence. In *Women, violence and social control* (pp. 46-60). Palgrave Macmillan, London.
- Kelly, L. (1988). How women define their experiences of violence.

- Kelly, L. (2012). Standing the test of time? Reflections on the concept of the continuum of sexual violence. *Handbook on sexual violence, ed. Jennifer Brown, and Sandra Walklate, xvii-xxv. London: Routledge.*
- Kelly, L. (2013). *Surviving sexual violence*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Kilpatrick, D. G., Saunders, B. E., & Smith, D. W. (2003). Youth victimization: Prevalence and implications. Research in brief. *Washington, DC: US Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs.*
- Kissling, E. A. (1991). Street harassment: The language of sexual terrorism. *Discourse & Society, 2*(4), 451-460.
- Klein, D. (1981). Violence against women: Some considerations regarding its causes and its elimination. *Crime & Delinquency, 27*(1), 64-80.
- Krupnick, J. L., Green, B. L., Stockton, P., Goodman, L., Corcoran, C., & Petty, R. (2004). Mental health effects of adolescent trauma exposure in a female college sample: Exploring differential outcomes based on experiences of unique trauma types and dimensions. *Psychiatry: Interpersonal and Biological Processes, 67*(3), 264-279.
- Laniya, O. O. (2005). Street smut: gender, media, and the legal power dynamics of street harassment, or hey sexy and other verbal ejaculations. *Colum. J. Gender & L., 14*, 91.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. Springer publishing company.
- Leidig, M. W. (1992). The continuum of violence against women: Psychological and physical consequences. *Journal of American College Health, 40*(4), 149-155.

- Lenton, R., Smith, M. D., Fox, J., & Morra, N. (1999). Sexual harassment in public places: Experiences of Canadian women. *Canadian Review of Sociology/Revue canadienne de sociologie*, 36(4), 517-540.
- Lipari, R. N., & Lancaster, A. R. (2003). *Armed forces 2002 sexual harassment survey* (No. DMDC-2003-026). DEFENSE MANPOWER DATA CENTER ALEXANDRIA, VA.
- Little, R. J. (1988). A test of missing completely at random for multivariate data with missing values. *Journal of the American statistical Association*, 83(404), 1198-1202.
- Livingston, B. (2015). Cornell international survey on street harassment. Retrieved from <http://www.ihollaback.org>.
- Logan, L. S. (2015). Street harassment: Current and promising avenues for researchers and activists. *Sociology Compass*, 9(3), 196-211.
- Mercer, S. H., Zeigler-Hill, V., Wallace, M., & Hayes, D. M. (2011). Development and initial validation of the Inventory of Microaggressions Against Black Individuals. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 58(4), 457.
- Mickelson, K. D., & Williams, D. R. (1999). The prevalence, distribution, and mental health correlates of perceived discrimination in the United States. *J Health Soc Behav*, 40, 208-230.
- Nielsen, L. B. (2000). Situating legal consciousness: Experiences and attitudes of ordinary citizens about law and street harassment. *Law & Soc'y Rev.*, 34, 1055.
- Nielsen, L. B. (2002). Subtle, pervasive, harmful: Racist and sexist remarks in public as hate speech. *Journal of Social Issues*, 58(2), 265-280.
- Petrosky, E., Blair, J. M., Betz, C. J., Fowler, K. A., Jack, S. P., & Lyons, B. H. (2017). Racial and ethnic differences in homicides of adult women and the role of intimate partner

- violence—United States, 2003–2014. *MMWR. Morbidity and mortality weekly report*, 66(28), 741.
- Prilleltensky, I. (2008). The role of power in wellness, oppression, and liberation: The promise of psychopolitical validity. *Journal of community psychology*, 36(2), 116-136.
- Purdie-Vaughns, V., & Eibach, R. P. (2008). Intersectional invisibility: The distinctive advantages and disadvantages of multiple subordinate-group identities. *Sex Roles*, 59(5-6), 377-391.
- Rubin, D. C., Berntsen, D., & Bohni, M. K. (2008). A memory-based model of posttraumatic stress disorder: evaluating basic assumptions underlying the PTSD diagnosis. *Psychological review*, 115(4), 985.
- Schneider, K. T., Swan, S., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1997). Job-related and psychological effects of sexual harassment in the workplace: empirical evidence from two organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(3), 401.
- Seides, R. (2010). Should the current DSM-IV-TR definition for PTSD be expanded to include serial and multiple microtraumas as aetiologies?. *Journal of psychiatric and mental health nursing*, 17(8), 725-731.
- Serido, J., Almeida, D. M., & Wethington, E. (2004). Chronic stressors and daily hassles: Unique and interactive relationships with psychological distress. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 45(1), 17-33.
- Singh, A. A. (2013). Transgender youth of color and resilience: Negotiating oppression and finding support. *Sex Roles*, 68(11-12), 690-702.
- Smith, S., Chen, J., Basile, K., Gilbert, L., Merrick, M., Patel, N., Walling, M., & Jain, A. (2016). National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey: 2010-2012 State Report.

- Sokoloff, N. J., & Dupont, I. (2005). Domestic violence at the intersections of race, class, and gender: Challenges and contributions to understanding violence against marginalized women in diverse communities. *Violence against women, 11*(1), 38-64.
- Stanko, E. A. (1993). The case of fearful women: Gender, personal safety and fear of crime. *Women & Criminal Justice, 4*(1), 117-135.
- Stanko, E. A. (1995). Women, crime, and fear. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 539*(1), 46-58.
- Stark, S., Chernyshenko, O. S., Lancaster, A. R., Drasgow, F., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (2002). Toward standardized measurement of sexual harassment: Shortening the SEQ-DoD using item response theory. *Military Psychology, 14*(1), 49-72.
- Stein, N. (1995). Sexual harassment in school: The public performance of gendered violence. *Harvard Educational Review, 65*(2), 145-163.
- Stevens, J. P. (1984). Outliers and influential data points in regression analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 95*(2), 334.
- Sue, D. W., Capodilupo, C. M., Torino, G. C., Bucceri, J. M., Holder, A., Nadal, K. L., & Esquilin, M. (2007). Racial microaggressions in everyday life: implications for clinical practice. *American psychologist, 62*(4), 271.
- Swim, J. K., Hyers, L. L., Cohen, L. L., & Ferguson, M. J. (2001). Everyday sexism: Evidence for its incidence, nature, and psychological impact from three daily diary studies. *Journal of Social Issues, 57*(1), 31-53.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). Using multivariate statistics (Vol. 5). *Nedham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.*

- Stop Street Harassment. (2018). The facts behind the #metoo movement: A national study on sexual harassment and assault. Retrieved from <http://www.stopstreetharassment.org/>.
- Thompson, D. M. (1994). The woman in the street: Reclaiming the public space from sexual harassment. *Yale JL & Feminism*, 6, 313.
- Tjaden, P., & Thoennes, N. (1998). Prevalence, incidence, and consequences of violence against women: Findings from the National Violence Against Women Survey, National Institute of Justice. *NCJ*, 172837, 2-18.
- Tjaden, P. G., & Thoennes, N. (2006). Extent, nature, and consequences of rape victimization: Findings from the National Violence Against Women Survey.
- Ueno, K. (2005). Sexual orientation and psychological distress in adolescence: Examining interpersonal stressors and social support processes. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 68(3), 258-277.
- Valentine, G. (1990). Women's fear and the design of public space. *Built environment*, 16(4), 288.
- Vera-Gray, F. (2016). *Men's Intrusion, Women's Embodiment: A critical analysis of street harassment*. Routledge.
- Vera-Gray, F. (2016). Men's stranger intrusions: Rethinking street harassment. In *Women's Studies International Forum* (Vol. 58, pp. 9-17). Pergamon.
- Vogelman, L. (1990). *The sexual face of violence: Rapists on rape* (p. 2). Johannesburg: Ravan Press.
- Weber, L. (1998). A conceptual framework for understanding race, class, gender, and sexuality. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 22(1), 13-32.

- Woods, K. C., Buchanan, N. T., & Settles, I. H. (2009). Sexual harassment across the color line: Experiences and outcomes of cross-versus intraracial sexual harassment among Black women. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 15*(1), 67.
- Worthington, R. L., & Whittaker, T. A. (2006). Scale development research: A content analysis and recommendations for best practices. *The Counseling Psychologist, 34*(6), 806-838.
- Yiengprugsawan, V., Kelly, M., & Tawatsupa, B. (2014). Kessler psychological distress scale. *Encyclopedia of quality of life and well-being research, 34*69-3470.

Appendix A: Institutional Review Board Approval Letter

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS AT URBANA-CHAMPAIGN

Office of the Vice Chancellor for Research

Office for the Protection of Research Subjects
528 East Green Street
Suite 203
Champaign, IL 61820



March 13, 2017

Nicole Allen
Psychology
721 Psychology Bldg
603 East Daniel Street
Champaign, IL 61820

RE: *Women's Experiences of Gender-Based Public Harassment*
IRB Protocol Number: 17591

Dear Dr. Allen:

This letter authorizes the use of human subjects in your project entitled *Women's Experiences of Gender-Based Public Harassment*. The University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign Institutional Review Board (IRB) approved, by expedited review, the protocol as described in your IRB application. The expiration date for this protocol, IRB number 17591, is 03/12/2020. The risk designation applied to your project is *no more than minimal risk*.

Copies of the attached date-stamped consent form(s) must be used in obtaining informed consent. If there is a need to revise or alter the consent form(s), please submit the revised form(s) for IRB review, approval, and date-stamping prior to use.

Under applicable regulations, no changes to procedures involving human subjects may be made without prior IRB review and approval. The regulations also require that you promptly notify the IRB of any problems involving human subjects, including unanticipated side effects, adverse reactions, and any injuries or complications that arise during the project.

You were granted a three-year approval. If there are any changes to the protocol that result in your study becoming ineligible for the extended approval period, the RPI is responsible for immediately notifying the IRB via an amendment. The protocol will be issued a modified expiration date accordingly.

If you have any questions about the IRB process, or if you need assistance at any time, please feel free to contact me at the OPRS office, or visit our website at <https://www.oprs.research.illinois.edu>.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads "jennifer ford".

Jennifer Ford, MS
Human Subjects Research Specialist, Office for the Protection of Research Subjects

Attachment(s): 1 Waiver of Documentation, 1 Consent Form

c: Hope Holland



WAIVER OF DOCUMENTATION OF INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Application for Waiver of Documentation on Informed Consent

ALL APPLICATIONS MUST BE SIGNED AND SUBMITTED VIA EMAIL TO IRB@ILLINOIS.EDU.

Responsible Project Investigator: Nicole Allen

Project Title: Women's Experiences of Gender-Based Public Harassment

IRB Number 17591

RECEIVED

MAR 10 2017

UIUC OPRS

To request a waiver of documentation [signature] of informed consent, please provide a response to either of the following questions. Please be specific in explaining why either statement is true for this research.

In cases in which the documentation requirement is waived, the IRB may require the investigator to provide subjects with a written statement regarding the research.

1. Explain that the only record linking the subject and the research would be the consent document and the principal risk would be potential harm resulting from a breach of confidentiality. Each subject will be asked whether the subject wants documentation linking the subject with the research, and the subject's wishes will govern. *Note: A waiver of documentation of informed consent is not permissible under this category if subject to FDA regulations.

The only record linking the subject and the research would be the consent document and the principal risk would be potential harm resulting from a breach of confidentiality. Each subject will be asked whether the subject wants documentation linking the subject with the research, and the subject's wishes will govern.

2. The research presents no more than minimal risk of harm to subjects and involves no procedures for which written consent is normally required outside the context.

The research presents no more than minimal risk of harm to subjects. Study participants will be discussing things that they have and have not experienced in their day-to-day lives; these discussions are likely common among friends and acquaintances, and require no written consent outside of the research context. Additionally, because all study participants will be given resources to contact in the event that they would like to further discuss these topics with someone, the risks of harm are minimal and comparable to the same type of discussion outside of a research setting.

Nicole Allen 3/10/17
Responsible Principal Investigator Date
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Institutional Review Board
IRB Approval:
Approved: MARCH 13, 2017
IRB #: 17591

OFFICE FOR THE PROTECTION OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS	UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS AT URBANA-CHAMPAIGN	Revised: 01/04/17
528 East Green Street, Suite 203, MC-419, Champaign, IL 61820	T 217-333-2670 F 217-333-0405	irb@illinois.edu opes.illinois.edu

By clicking on the button below, you are agreeing to the consent form above and voluntarily consenting to participate in taking the survey.

Thank you so much for your time, and we look forward to better understanding your experiences.

B- Demographic and Health Survey

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Institutional Review Board

Approved: MARCH 13, 2017
Expires: MARCH 12, 2020
IRB #: 17591

1. What is your age? [TEXT BOX]

2. What is your gender identity?

Appendix B: Participant Consent Document

Please read this consent agreement carefully. You must be 18 years or older to participate.

This survey will ask you a variety of questions about your experiences. Some of these questions relate to experiences you may have had in public, at work or school, and at home. We will also be asking you some general questions about your health, emotions, and general well-being. Your voice is extremely important, and we want you to feel comfortable in answering these questions freely and honestly.

Confidentiality:

Your confidentiality is a priority, and whatever information you share on this survey will not be linked to you: we cannot access your IP address or link your survey to your name, student ID, or email address. Your responses will be anonymous. To further ensure anonymity, you will not have access to your partially completed survey if you close your browser. Your responses will be stored on a password-protected computer in a locked facility accessible only by the research team, and will be deleted in Qualtrics (the online survey). Only members of the University of Illinois research team assisting with this project will see the raw data collected in this study. In addition, any publication, report or presentation of research results from these observations would not include any information that could personally identify you.

Your participation is voluntary. You can choose to discontinue your participation at any time without penalty. You can choose to skip items you do not wish to answer and return to items you have previously answered.

There is an optional open-ended question at the end of the survey. You will be taken to a separate page if you choose to answer it. This response will be completely disconnected from your previous answers to the survey and we will not be able to match your responses. Please do not give any identifiable information (name, UIN, etc.) about yourself or another person. All identifiable information will be removed prior to analysis. If you provide identifying

information and it relates to harm to self or others, we may be required to share this

information with a campus resource, such as University Counseling Center. Faculty, staff, students, and others with permission or authority to see this study information will maintain its confidentiality to the extent permitted and required by laws and university policies. The names or personal identifiers of participants will not be published or presented.

Risks:

This survey will take approximately 35-40 minutes. Some of the questions are of a personal nature and involve your dating and sexual history. Questions include asking whether a romantic partner has ever threatened to hurt you or if someone has ever engaged with you sexually when you were too drunk or out of it to stop what was happening. It would be good to find a private space to respond where you will be uninterrupted. You should plan to complete the survey in one sitting as you will not be able to return to your incomplete survey if you close the window. Further, some of the sexual misconduct experiences that we ask about may be upsetting to you. Thus, for some people, answering these questions may be emotionally tiring or cause discomfort. Again, you may choose to skip questions you do not want to answer. On almost every survey page, there is a link to a list of resources that might be helpful if these questions are upsetting or you wish to talk to someone about your feelings.

Should you wish to speak to someone about your experience you can make contact with UIUC Women's Resources Center (217-333-3137) or the Counseling Center (217-333-3704). You also contact off-campus resources such as the Rape Advocacy Counseling & Education Services (217-384-4444) or the local domestic violence hotline Courage Connection (217-384-4390).

Please note that since this is an anonymous survey, we will not be able to contact you if you need assistance. If you need assistance, you must contact with a resource on your own.

Once you have completed the survey, you will be able to access a link to receive credit for the

subject pool. You will receive 1 hour of subject pool credit for completing this survey.

Who to contact about your rights in this study:

If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this study or any concerns or complaints, please contact the University of Illinois Institutional Review Board at 217-333-2670 or via email at irb@illinois.edu.

By clicking on the button below, you are agreeing to the consent form above and voluntarily consenting to participate in taking the survey.

Please choose one:

- ☐ I affirm that I am over the age of 18, the purpose and nature of this research have been sufficiently explained, and that I understand that I am free to withdraw at any time without incurring any penalty. I consent to participate in this study.
- ☐ I do not consent to participate in this study

Thank you so much for your time, and we look forward to better understanding your experiences.

Appendix C: Gender-Based Public Harassment Survey

This survey is specifically looking at women's experiences in public spaces. Many questions ask about behavior by 'a man' or 'men'; please consider all male-identified individuals in this group.

The survey also asks about people you don't know or don't know well; for these questions, please think about people you may only see once or twice, people you would consider strangers, and people you may see regularly but outside of class, work, or friends-of-friends (so, this might be someone who waits at the same bus stop with you every day, or someone who is always at the same intersection when you cross the street).

Question Stem: "In the past 12 months, how often have you personally experienced a man or men that you did not know:..."

Response Options: 1: 0-5 times total, 2: 6-11 times total, 3: Once or twice a month, 4: 1-3 times a week, 5: 4-6 times a week, 6: Everyday

1. Say or shout something to you using critical or demeaning language about your physical appearance or gender while in a public space?
2. Attempt to approach you using critical or demeaning language about your physical appearance and/or gender?
3. Tell you that you would be more attractive if you looked more 'feminine' e.g. "You'd be pretty with long hair" or "you'd actually be attractive if you had boobs" - Ever in your life:
4. Make sexual remarks about you as you walked by?
5. Make offensive comments to you about 'women' in general?
6. Change from 'hitting on' you to insulting you?
7. Say or shout something to you using sexually explicit language?
8. Say or shout something to you using complimentary language about your physical appearance (e.g., "you're beautiful")?
9. Make sexually suggestive gestures to while you were in a public space?
10. Stand unnecessarily close to you?
11. Stare or 'leer' at you?
12. Touch you (e.g. grabbing your arm as you walked by)?

13. Tell you that you 'friend-zoned' him?
14. Accuse you of not wanting to talk to him because he is 'ugly'?
15. Accuse you of not wanting to talk to him because of his race?
16. Accuse you of acting like you were scared of him?
17. Accuse you of not wanting to talk to him because of his perceived wealth/'status'?
18. Accuse you of not wanting to talk to him because of his age (e.g., 'too old')?
19. Accuse you of being 'stuck up' if you didn't want to talk to him?
20. Sending you a photo of their genitals ('dick pics') or another sexually explicit photo that you did not ask for?
21. Change from 'hitting on' you to insulting you?
22. Compare or 'rank' you against other women?
23. Tell you that you were 'leading him on'?
24. Take photos of you? (This should be considered outside of the context of an event with a hired photographer taking photos of many people in the crowd)

25. Tell you to 'give him a chance' regarding going out with him or another man?
26. Say that you were hired for a certain position/are good at something because of your appearance?
27. 'Congratulating' or praising your romantic partner because of your appearance?
28. Sending you a sexually suggestive message with little or no prior contact?
29. Calling you a 'slut' or a 'whore'?
30. Calling you a 'prude'?
31. Say something to you like "I want you so bad"?
32. Tell you 'don't worry, I'm not going to rape you or anything'?
33. Comment on your behavior and say something like "By doing that, you're basically asking to be raped"?
34. Ask you for a hug or kiss?
35. Tell a 'rape joke'?
36. How often have you experienced "perks" such as a man saying that something could be traded for a date, smile, hug, kiss, etc? For example, "Oh you don't have to pay for that- you're smile is good enough!" or "Don't worry about the gas money, I'll take a hug instead"?

Appendix D: Sexual Experiences Questionnaire- Department of Defense- Short Edition (SEQ-DoD-s)

These questions are different from the ones you've just answered. While the earlier questions asked you mostly about experiences outside or in mostly public spaces like restaurants or bars, these questions are going to ask you about your experiences at work and school.

For these questions, please think about your time at work and at school. We are going to ask you questions about situations you may or may not have experienced, as well as what you may or may not have seen happening to others. Please read the statements and mark the answer that is true for you.

As a reminder, all of your answers are confidential, and none of your responses will be shared with any of your teachers, supervisors, other classmates, or friends. Only the members of the research team will see any of your responses, and they will not be linked to any identifying information like your name or UIN.

Over the past 12 months, has a boss, supervisor, teacher, or student in a position of authority over you:

1. Treated you "differently" because of your sex?
2. Displayed, used, or distributed sexist or suggestive materials?
3. Made offensive sexist remarks?
4. Put you down or was condescending to you because of your sex?
5. Repeatedly told sexual stories or jokes that were offensive to you?
6. Made unwelcome attempts to draw you into a discussion of sexual matters?
7. Made offensive remarks about your appearance, body, or sexual activities?
8. Made gestures or used body language of a sexual nature which embarrassed or offended you?
9. Made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic sexual relationship with you despite your efforts to discourage it?
10. Continued to ask you for dates, drinks, dinner, etc., even though you said "No"?
11. Touched you in a way that made you feel uncomfortable?
12. Made unwanted attempts to stroke, fondle, or kiss you?
13. Made you feel like you were being bribed with a reward to engage in sexual behavior?
14. Made you feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative?
15. Treated you badly for refusing to have sex?
16. Implied faster promotions or better treatment if you were sexually cooperative?

Appendix E: Life Events Checklist (LEC)

LIFE EVENTS CHECKLIST (LEC)

Listed below are a number of difficult or stressful things that sometimes happen to people. For each event check one or more of the boxes to the right to indicate that: (a) it happened to you personally, (b) you witnessed it happen to someone else, (c) you learned about it happening to someone close to you, (d) you're not sure if it fits, or (e) it doesn't apply to you.

Be sure to consider your entire life (growing up as well as adulthood) as you go through the list of events.

Event	Happened to me	Witnessed it	Learned about it	Not Sure	Doesn't apply
1. Natural disaster (for example, flood, hurricane, tornado, earthquake)					
2. Fire or explosion					
3. Transportation accident (for example, car accident, boat accident, train wreck, plane crash)					
4. Serious accident at work, home, or during recreational activity					
5. Exposure to toxic substance (for example, dangerous chemicals, radiation)					
6. Physical assault (for example, being attacked, hit, slapped, kicked, beaten up)					
7. Assault with a weapon (for example, being shot, stabbed, threatened with a knife, gun, bomb)					
8. Sexual assault (rape, attempted rape, made to perform any type of sexual act through force or threat of harm)					
9. Other unwanted or uncomfortable sexual experience					
10. Combat or exposure to a war-zone (in the military or as a civilian)					
11. Captivity (for example, being kidnapped, abducted, held hostage, prisoner of war)					
12. Life-threatening illness or injury					
13. Severe human suffering					
14. Sudden, violent death (for example, homicide, suicide)					
15. Sudden, unexpected death of someone close to you					
16. Serious injury, harm, or death you caused to someone else					
17. Any other very stressful event or experience					

Appendix F: Kessler Psychological Distress Scale (K10)

These questions concern how you have been feeling over the past 30 days. Click a box below each question that best represents how you have been.

1. During the last 30 days, about how often did you feel tired out for no good reason?

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
------------------	----------------------	------------------	------------------	-----------------

2. During the last 30 days, about how often did you feel nervous?

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
------------------	----------------------	------------------	------------------	-----------------

3. During the last 30 days, about how often did you feel so nervous that nothing could calm you down?

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
------------------	----------------------	------------------	------------------	-----------------

4. During the last 30 days, about how often did you feel hopeless?

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
------------------	----------------------	------------------	------------------	-----------------

5. During the last 30 days, about how often did you feel restless or fidgety?

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
------------------	----------------------	------------------	------------------	-----------------

6. During the last 30 days, about how often did you feel so restless you could not sit still?

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
------------------	----------------------	------------------	------------------	-----------------

7. During the last 30 days, about how often did you feel depressed?

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
------------------	----------------------	------------------	------------------	-----------------

8. During the last 30 days, about how often did you feel that everything was an effort?

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
------------------	----------------------	------------------	------------------	-----------------

9. During the last 30 days, about how often did you feel so sad that nothing could cheer you up?

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
------------------	----------------------	------------------	------------------	-----------------

10. During the last 30 days, about how often did you feel worthless?

None of the time	A little of the time	Some of the time	Most of the time	All of the time
------------------	----------------------	------------------	------------------	-----------------